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What Public Education Needs

Intelligent planning that considers the entire educational program from the child's standpoint is urgently required. Five steps for hastening the economic recovery of the schools are here outlined

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DURING any major depression or extended period of economic readjustment public education¹ passes through an unavoidable three-phase cycle—first, no effect; second, pressure and panic; third, recovery. Since this cycle cannot be avoided so long as public education depends on taxation for support, the obvious need is for careful unemotional study of the several phases, with their peculiar underlying psychology, followed by intelligent planning to meet conditions as they arise.

Objectively, there is little occasion for unreasoning fear or professional panic. Public education experienced similar conditions in the 'sixties and again in the 'nineties. From each of these major depressions the schools emerged with greater effectiveness. So long as our democratic concept of social organization exists, the need for a comprehensive and inclusive system of public education will continue. The adequacy of the schools over any given period will depend on popular understanding and popular appreciation of need and value. The responsibility for planning the program and educating the people is distinctly a professional obligation.

Before considering the depression cycle in de-

tail, a word of caution to board of education members and superintendents is desirable. The second or panic phase is caused by the unreasoning sweep of emotion natural to average men and women who find themselves suddenly against a blank economic wall. Their plans and their hopes have apparently been smashed forever (so they think) by unseen but terrifically overwhelming forces. They strike out blindly, viciously and unintelligently against everything that appears further to thwart them.

This sweep of emotion is contagious. It quickly affects current officeholders who are generally quite unprepared for it. With few notable exceptions, our social plans are built on a hand-to-mouth basis. Even these are quickly adapted to panic requirements. Little discrimination is shown with respect to basic or essential activities and those that are desirable only when the economic condition makes their support possible. The devastating storm sweeps over all and unthinking action cripples everything and destroys much of vital value.

School board members and superintendents must remember that this terrific fear fanned to fever heat by demagogic exhortation, which causes the masses to strike out blindly and viciously, cannot last long. It is too intense. Just as soon as the economic horizon shows signs of

¹Private educational effort is also affected since decrease in income automatically decreases the demand. In institutions where intelligent planning has provided for reserves and endowments, the depression effects appear to be fairly well offset.

clearing, the pressure breaks and more intelligent consideration is the order of the new day. Thoughtful leaders again receive a hearing. The so-called panic leaders who waved flags and beat drums with unusual vociferousness are tossed into the limbo of forgotten things. The public forgets its unreasoning demands. Critical inventory of what is left succeeds demands for elimination.

Public memory is short. Within a few years the severe reaction to panic fear and pressure is going to hold officials responsible for much of the damage that was done. Superintendents will be placed on the defensive to account for certain things that they permitted under pressure. Casual explanations will receive little applause. One of the theoretical assumptions underlying representative democracy is that the elected officials are responsible for protecting the needs of the people as well as for developing new means for expressing them. Crippled school plants, demoralized personnel, shortage of essential instructional supplies, textbooks and equipment, restricted activity and the limiting of social opportunity are going to be just as hard to explain as alleged "fads" during the panic period.

The customary popular method of seeking some individual on whom to lay the blame for its own sins will place many a board of education and public school superintendent in an embarrassing position. Logical? Of course not. Mass emotion is seldom logical. Consistent? Certainly not. Mass emotion is seldom consistent but sweeps rapidly from one extreme to another. The time has come when board of education members and their superintendents must recognize these facts and regulate their plans accordingly.

With this brief emphasis on the convalescent period following the panic phase, it is possible to consider in logical sequence the depression cycle outlined earlier.

The First Phase

All public school systems have now passed through the first phase which lasted approximately two years. Since the depression started in almost the middle of the academic year, the first budget was not affected. Encouraged by the public utterances of our industrial leaders and high governmental officials, the schools operated on the assumption that the adjustment period would be as brief as in 1920-21 and would not affect them greatly. The professional group as a whole gave little attention to real planning to meet and to tide over the depression period.

The alarming increase in delinquent taxes and the popular rumblings against excessive costs,

promptly capitalized by the demagogue who began to prey on popular fear, brought about some retrenchment in the second budget. Since the teaching force had not been brought to realize existing conditions, most superintendents recommended to boards of education the elimination of things that could not talk back. New buildings, essential repairs to the existing plant, replacement of textbooks, the purchase of good supplies and the replacement of equipment all suffered heavy reductions regardless of their importance. Evening schools and continuation activities, essential in rehabilitating the victims of technologic unemployment, summer schools, and child recreation were ruthlessly eliminated. Essential supervision on which instructional efficiency depends was severely crippled and in many instances eliminated. On the whole, teachers' salaries were not reduced much although greater demands were made on the teachers, sick and sabbatical leaves generally eliminated and scheduled increases stopped. This condition existed generally at the close of the 1930-31 fiscal year.

The Second Phase

Since every system of taxation is predicated on economic productivity, the progressive ability of the people to pay will be determined at any given time by the degree of general economic activity. Since practically all of our governmental capital improvement activity, including the schools, was premised on the continued acceleration of economic life, serious problems suddenly presented themselves. Fixed charges were found to be high.

The so-called taxpayers' leagues, organized and stimulated chiefly by individuals whose speculative business had profited most by unwise and unheeded extension of public capital improvements, came into existence over night. Every property owner who felt the unfair pinch of our archaic system of general taxation was a ready candidate for membership. Control of these groups, however, rested with small but determined "inside" groups. Taking advantage of popular fear and, in the beginning, aided by a not too thoughtful section of the press, these groups set out to cut public expenditure. Unreasoning popular fear under shortsighted leadership took up pressure politics.

The third depression budget was built under these conditions. Debt service requirements were maintained to safeguard credit. Beyond that point it was a question of the foresight of boards of education with respect to exact knowledge of conditions and advance planning as to how much could be salvaged. Since research activities had

been completely eliminated in many instances in the second budget, many executives found themselves without means of knowing the exact internal conditions.

Tax league officials became educational specialists over night and bullied boards of education into unwise reductions. Where boards of education did not immediately accede to this demand, the league placed "slates" of reduction-candidates into the next election.

The first major reductions consisted of adjustments of money wages to the 1929 level of real wages. In general there has been a fair maintenance of depression purchasing power. Since teachers' salaries are built on a sliding scale with reference to increase in efficiency, the younger teachers were seriously affected while those older in service maintained their position fairly well.

The second group of reductions fell on those agencies essential to the maintenance of efficient instruction, textbooks, supplies, equipment and the school plant. A study of sample budgets from different sections of the country indicates that relatively few executives considered the entire educational plan in making these reductions. They cut where the least possible immediate objection might be raised. Appropriations for essential agencies were reduced or even eliminated without regard for need.

Curricular activity, essential to modern social need and which represented large capital investment, was also cut or eliminated and this plant investment allowed to stand idle, representing extravagance rather than economy.

Class sizes were increased in many instances beyond reasonable experimental assumptions. Teachers' loads were raised without any corresponding change in method to prevent losses in efficiency. Essential supervision and research, so vital to growth and greater effectiveness in doing the job, were simply erased.

Instead of securing the most efficient expenditure of money for the greatest possible return, the chief results of this entire panic period seem to be greatly reduced expenditure at the expense of efficiency. Ruthless cutting is not economy but gross extravagance.

Public education is now rapidly approaching the end of the second phase.

The Third Phase

As the public begins to recover its emotional equilibrium and the real purposes of the groups antagonistic to public education become apparent, parents begin again to think in terms of their children's future, reaction sets in and this condition marks the beginning of the third phase.

The panic attitude is succeeded by sober thought. Socially minded leaders begin to see the serious cultural effects of unintelligent cutting on schools, libraries and other agencies of popular education. Counter organization appears. The institutions take inventory and find that panic cutting is not the best way to make a budget. The terrific pessimism of the second stage is gradually replaced by a more optimistic outlook. The press discovers that the psychology of outlook plays an important part in economic recovery. Merchants and bankers come out of their cyclone cellars and dust off the "bigger and better" slogans of an earlier day.

The lifting of the economic clouds merely forces boards of education and superintendents to face the new type of critical appraisal. Parents and others ask them questions. They must answer for actions forced on them by the same public under a different psychology. Explanations are in order.

Five Tasks Lie Ahead

If public education is to profit by past experience and to emerge more efficient and better equipped, the immediate and most urgent need is for complete and objective survey within each district and the development of a ten-year program to repair the damages already done and to meet new problems and demands. Five steps suggest themselves.

The first essential step is the development in each district of an adequate program of public relations. The people must know more about the purpose, value, conditions and needs of their schools. They must be shown again the vital part this institution plays in the future of their children and in the maintenance of a democratic social order. Every professional agent must be made aware of his dual responsibility for assisting in the education of the children and the community. The parent-teacher organization should be organized immediately around a program in which the needs of the child and of the social order are factually presented. Unless this program of community education is objectively developed and maintained, free from individual or group selfishness, the public schools will make slow progress in returning to normal conditions. The rate of return depends entirely on the effectiveness of the public relations program.

The second step is survey of organization in terms of its facilitation of the major objectives of education. This requires functional rather than traditional organization. The outcome may mean a different concept of personnel both in activity and relationships. Extravagance of any type, whether of function or activity, must be

fearlessly eliminated. After the general objectives and their related activities have been considered in all of their balanced and relative aspects, it is possible to survey the damaged activities and the crippled agencies and to secure their betterment as rapidly as possible.

The third step should be careful consideration of the physical plant. Buildings are only one of the facilitating instructional agencies but a relatively expensive one. Neglect of repairs is a gross form of extravagance. Leaky roofs, checked walls and insecure plaster, poor floors, inefficient heating plants, bad plumbing, paintless wood or metal surfaces, if neglected, will within a few years cost from three to ten times as much for repairs. The best economy is adequate upkeep, using materials of known quality. It affects the efficiency of instruction quite directly.

When Spending Is Economy

Next in point of economy is the operation of expensive or obsolete plants. A thorough school plant survey will determine the presence of small and extravagant buildings. Units that are too small to give adequate service should be carefully considered in terms of economy. The present low commodity prices cannot be expected to be maintained for a much longer time. It will never be possible to replace small, extravagant and inefficient buildings more cheaply than at present.

Equipment of all types should be surveyed with respect to instructional efficiency. Any that constitutes a hazard must be replaced regardless of budgets. Children's lives must not be jeopardized. The operation of a defective boiler may cost more in a few years than its replacement at current prices. Rickety and patched furniture should be scrapped. Laboratory equipment must be replaced to ensure efficient science instruction. Installation of mechanical cleaning devices may permit more effective use of operating personnel. Every activity in which equipment is used should be studied and economies effected intelligently to meet the need.

Careful study must be given to supply and textbook needs. Since instructional salaries require approximately seventy cents out of every dollar, it is difficult to see how even the complete elimination of supply and textbook appropriations can effect the essential decreases. Executives must consider the problem of education as a whole in the development of their next budgets. While it is essential to maintain teacher morale, skimping on textbooks and supplies will, under existing conditions of teacher preparation, definitely reduce instructional efficiency. The best handwriting teacher cannot achieve much with inferior paper,

ink or pens. Her skill will be wasted to the extent that her tools are below the required standards. American education is today rather completely dependent on the textbook. It is not good judgment to curtail the use of this essential instructional tool.

Many of our public school systems are growing despite the depression. Children in these centers need adequate physical facilities. We cannot afford to place our children on part-time programs with the attendant evils of retardation, curricular inadequacy and the opportunities for antisocial activities. Children coming into the schools today are entitled to a fair chance. Soon parents will rightfully insist on it. Scientific survey will indicate the need for new structures. Only the essential should be built. New buildings must be designed economically. Hit-and-miss and imitative methods are obsolete. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on adequate educational designing in conjunction with the employment of responsible architects who have specialized in school plants and have worthy projects to their credit. While existing commodity prices will give relatively cheap construction costs, the greatest possible economy will not be achieved unless both educational designing and architectural services are carefully safeguarded.

Public education is rapidly approaching the third or recovery phase. The rate of recovery will be conditioned by economic factors, by the organization of public leaders and parents to protect the schools from the unintelligent demagogue and from selfish interests, by the extent to which the institution itself through a public relations program brings the public to an understanding of the purpose, value, conditions and needs of this most vital social institution. An intensive survey of the complete problem is clearly indicated for each district, to be followed by the formulation of a long-time program of planning.

Superintendents Must Show the Way

The most rigid economy must not only be practiced during the recovery period but must be maintained. This new program should be developed on the principle of "the greatest return for the least expenditure of money." A budget cannot be considered as composed of piecemeal and independent items but rather as a balanced entity in which all direct and facilitating activities must be considered as a whole and studied in their functional relationships. The rate of return to normal conditions will depend finally on the vision and the leadership exerted by superintendents and teachers and the effectiveness with which they recognize their professional obligations.



Physical Education—What It Can Do to Improve Racial Health

An adequate program of recreation is symbolic of a happy people and it is a community responsibility to provide play opportunities in the schools

By CARLTON PALMER, Professor of Physical Education, University of Alabama

PHYSICAL educators are essentially interested in the development of play skills, recreative interests, and social and moral attributes that serve to enrich the lives of young and old and make them more significant.

As physical well-being is fundamental to the enjoyment of living, physical educators are vitally interested in individual and racial health. They seek to improve racial health through the development of sound, vigorous organs by means of wholesome play. The muscular effort of play and work stimulates the vital organs to greater

action, resulting in power and endurance, and, apart from hereditary endowment, vitality and power come through the activity of the muscular system.

Health means more than physical power and endurance. It implies social, emotional and mental well-being. All these physical education helps to promote through well directed play, for deep down in a man's nervous system are the hereditary impulses to enjoyable activity, and throughout the ages man has expressed himself in play and has preserved his vital powers through the

stimulation of muscular action. The muscular system is the strategic center through which the vital organs, the nervous system and even the brain are kept vigorous and efficient. Only through the action of the muscles can these vital parts be stimulated to greater health and endurance. In active play we call upon the heart, the lungs, the kidneys and the nervous system to increase their functions and supply the conditions for muscular action.

Man's Physical Characteristics Are Unchanged

A fireside existence is not conducive to vigorous functioning. Activity is the law of life and the rule of health. Anthropologists tell us that through the long ages the muscular habits of man were chiefly responsible for the evolution of his present structure and organic fitness.

Something, however, has happened to the activity habits of man. If his present physical powers are the result of activity of the muscular type, are we justified in altering these racial habits? Nevertheless, during the past century man has been slipping away from muscular activity and effort. There is no evidence that he can maintain his physical and mental status without muscular work and play. Physically man is essentially primitive. No significant physical changes have

taken place probably for fifty thousand years.

The biological nature of man has not changed. His organism still requires physical activity for its well-being. Civilization in the past one hundred years has undergone great social and economic changes, but the biological man has not altered correspondingly. Our industrial system and city dwelling only make it more necessary that man maintain his organic vitality through developmental physical activity.

The old-fashioned home life of work and play is virtually a thing of the past. Twenty-five years ago my parents lived on a small farm between the Allegheny River and the Allegheny hills in western New York State. School was a mile away and we walked and often ran the distance four times a day. After school the farm offered us a hundred chores, from pitching hay to shoveling snow—excellent physical education. The river was a challenge for swimming, boating, fishing, canoeing and skating. The hills offered hunting and adventure. At night the young men of the community gathered at the crossroads; teams were chosen for "Run Sheep Run" and often we ventured ten miles in the course of the evening chase.

Today conditions are changed. The city offers nothing to compare with this rural environment for creative work and joyful play. Many children



Horseshoe pitching is a good form of exercise for both young and old. This group of pupils is receiving instruction in the fine points of the game.



Playground ball is a popular sport in every community, and it is an excellent exercise.

resort to playing in the streets. Others are denied even this dangerous practice and find virtually no exercise. Too many fail to find active work or play in the open air, especially in the years when they most need the activity.

Man is surrendering his rural life for city life. In place of muscular effort out of doors he is turning to brain work in the office and laboratory. Once his strain was muscular, today it is mental and nervous. His brain is taxed through intensive mental effort. His work is narrow and specialized. There is danger of mental and emotional stress. The longing for material comforts and luxuries brings anxiety and worry in the struggle to obtain them. In the strife the monotony of work is intensified and the joy of life vanishes. This uprooting of our racial habits and conditions of life reacts upon our organic and mental health. Modern man requires no less than did primitive man stores of energy and endurance.

Industrial experts are fast making physical work unpopular. Man's nature, however, does not fit their plan. In "The Psychology of Achievement," Doctor Pitkin says "Millions of years in a stern environment have built into man's frame a nerve and muscle that demand hard work for their own good health. His highest abilities still lie in the use of that equipment. So his dreams

breed civil war under his skin. . . . Most men of high ability will go right on striving to bring about the Age of Golden Idleness, even though they themselves undermine their digestion and temper."¹

Thousands of professional men and business executives are on the verge of breaking down as a result of intensive intellectual effort and neglect of muscular exercise.

Community Must Support Recreation

Doctor Tyler points out that "As we move up the social scale from the man who works with his heavy muscles to those engaged in mental effort to the exclusion of muscular work, we find a gradual rise in the conditions that invite disease."²

William James warns the sedentary worker saying, "Even if the day ever dawns in which muscular exercise will not be needed to fight the old, heavy battles against nature, it will still always be needed to furnish the background of sanity, serenity and cheerfulness of life, to give moral elasticity to the disposition, to round off the wiry edges of our fretfulness, and to make us good-natured and easy to approach."³

¹Pitkin, Walter B., *The Psychology of Achievement*.

²Tyler, John M., *Growth and Education*.

³James, William, *Psychology*, vol. 2.

Nervous weakness is increasing rapidly. Signs of lowered vitality are evident and children of sedentary workers are in danger of inheriting a low level of vitality. Most people are growing old at forty, and early breakdowns are common. The tension, speed and worry of modern life exhaust nervous vitality. The inactive man loses his power of digestion and the condition reacts upon his nervous system. He finds his appetite for food and sleep disturbed, and becomes depressed and morose in spirit.

In this age children require more outdoor exercise than did children of a century ago. The school year is much longer and they enter school younger than formerly. Moreover, the city offers far less outdoor activity than the old farm provided. The farm was educational and developed physical vigor. Today the school must assume the responsibility for both.

Our problem is to develop men and women possessed of power and vitality by providing stimulating play through which physical vigor may be developed and maintained. The community must supply the means for muscular activity that will maintain a high level of functional well-being for its citizens. While our industrial society and the shifting of population to the cities deprive many people of active life, still the community cannot allow the organic deterioration of its members. Artificial means for promoting racial health must be provided. The community must support recreation just as it supports schools and churches. The schools as well as the adult community must have extensive programs of developmental physical activity. The school years are the important years for gaining power and endurance.

Thinks Only of Victory

The program must be organized to include everyone, not merely a handful of varsity athletes who monopolize facilities and opportunities at the expense of the remaining 90 per cent. The varsity team has no right to exist in any school until all the other students are amply provided for. To spend money on varsity teams in the absence of a thorough program of physical education is a misuse of public funds. The argument that gate receipts help support physical education programs denotes a complete misunderstanding of the function of physical education. Why not support the English or history department through gate receipts? Physical education is just as vital to success and happiness, and, consequently, just as worthy of support by public funds as any other branch of study in the curriculum of a school.

If the varsity athlete could be counted upon to

render valuable service to the community as a leader in the field of recreation, we might feel some justification for giving him special advantages in play. His training as a varsity athlete, however, does not make him considerate of the physical needs of others. He becomes an enthusiast for the winning eleven and advocates having the community sit by on the bleachers. When he is finally through with his intensive program of varsity athletics, he is likely to be so tired of it that he gives up activity for good, and, through certain processes of degeneration, he becomes a doubtful insurance risk and grows old at forty.

The Future Leaders

The physique and skill of the varsity athlete represent advantages in sport. They mean greater opportunity. Yet in spite of these advantages, after four or eight years of experience in misdirected athletics, he has not reached the point of view that it is desirable to continue his active play and maintain a high degree of functional well-being throughout life. Instead he is ready to give it up, for it has been "too much of a grind," and too often he lacks skills and interests to enjoy other sports.

True leadership for community recreation will not come from the varsity athletes. The best leadership for community recreation will come through a broad program of sports and games in the schools. These young people, mastering the skills and experiencing the thrills of sports in youth, will be eager to continue them as adults, for they will have learned to play for the joy, the thrill and the satisfaction they experience. These young people as they grow up will be the more logical leaders of recreational life in the community. They will come out from the shops of industry where the work is dull, monotonous and meaningless; out from the office where the life is sedentary and narrow, and use their leisure for expressive play—play giving the joy that re-creates man's physical, social and spiritual life.

It has been said that "The man or woman who does not play soon degenerates." Man is a playing animal and not a working animal. Work is often deadening, but play is expressive and creative. Work is essential, and so we must work, thus we have greater need of play. Man needs play that challenges the best in him and that allows him to do what he wants to do. Life is more than earning a living. The grind often dulls the spiritual aspects of man's nature, and spiritual attitudes vitally influence man's health. If industrial society has robbed man of muscular activity and creative expression, he can turn to play for interest, vitality, and enthusiasm.

Coordinating Subject Marks and Achievement Marks

What teachers say they take into consideration in grading and what they do in actual practice is revealed in this article, which also describes a workable technique for assigning marks

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THE PURPOSE of this study is to attack the problem of teachers' marks from a somewhat unusual angle and to indicate some of the steps to be taken in the practical solution of the problem.

It will be recalled that in studies previously reported we have shown the illusive nature of marks in general.¹ We pointed out rather conclusively that certain attitudes and behavior on the part of pupils were sufficient to ensure high marks or low marks irrespective of subject mastery. It was found entirely possible, for example, for pupils to receive marks of A in such a subject as geometry although their achievement, as measured by objective tests, was considerably poorer than that of 75 per cent of their classmates. In like manner it was found that other pupils in the same classes were receiving C's and D's notwithstanding the fact that their achievement, as measured objectively, was better than that of at least 75 per cent of their fellows. The A pupils of inferior accomplishment in subject matter, however, were extraordinarily "industrious" and "cooperative" while the C and D pupils of superior accomplishment were conspicuously lacking in these personal qualities.

More recently a study was made to determine the extent to which various other factors are taken into account by teachers when they assign semester marks for achievement. Accompanying a carefully prepared questionnaire compiled for this investigation was the following caution: The question is not to determine whether "regularity in assigned work," "maximum use of capacities," and other such factors increase the pupil's achievement in subject matter; but to ascertain the extent to which such factors cause the teacher to assign a higher or lower mark than would otherwise be recorded.

The extreme diversification of factors considered and the varying degree to which they are taken into account may be seen in Chart 1. It will be noted that the list contains factors as widely divergent as "mastery of subject matter"

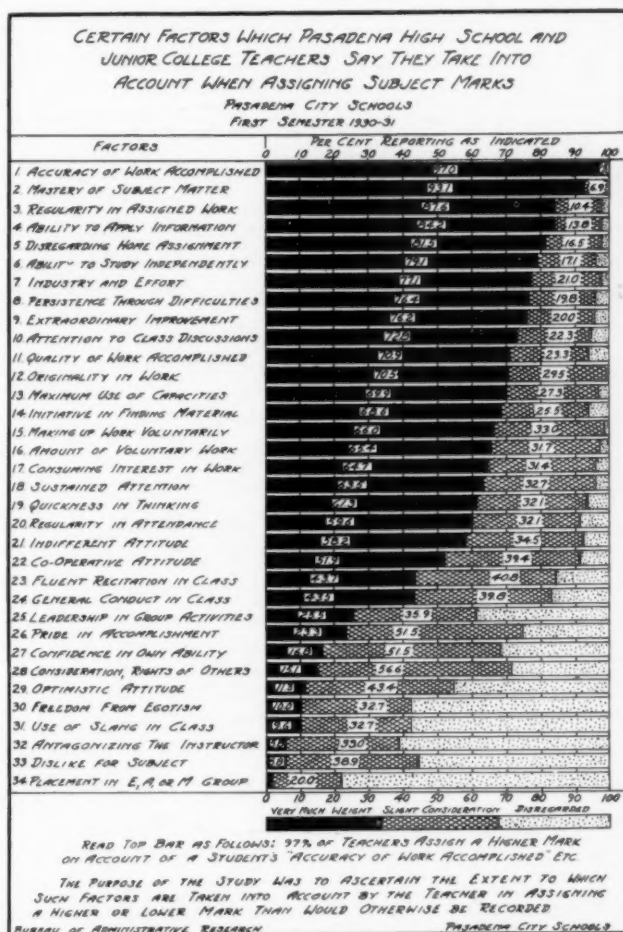


Chart 1.

and "antagonizing the instructor." The factors, however, upon which there is the greatest agreement are those most closely related to subject achievement, namely, "accuracy of work accomplished" and "mastery of subject matter." No

¹Hughes, W. Hardin, Analyzing the Ingredients of Teachers' Marks, The NATION'S SCHOOLS, December, 1930, p. 21.

teacher indicated a total disregard for either of these. "Originality in work" while falling somewhat lower in rank, with respect to "very much weight" assigned it, is given some consideration by 100 per cent of the teachers reporting. Not until we get down to the twenty-third item in the list, "fluent recitation in class," do we find any very considerable disregard for the factors enumerated.

We should keep in mind, however, that this portion of the study is based upon what teachers say they take into account which may differ somewhat from their actual practice however conscientious the teachers may have been in making their estimates.

Evidence of the reliability of estimates, however, may be seen in Chart 2 which shows a remarkable agreement between the results of the investigation in two independent institutions.

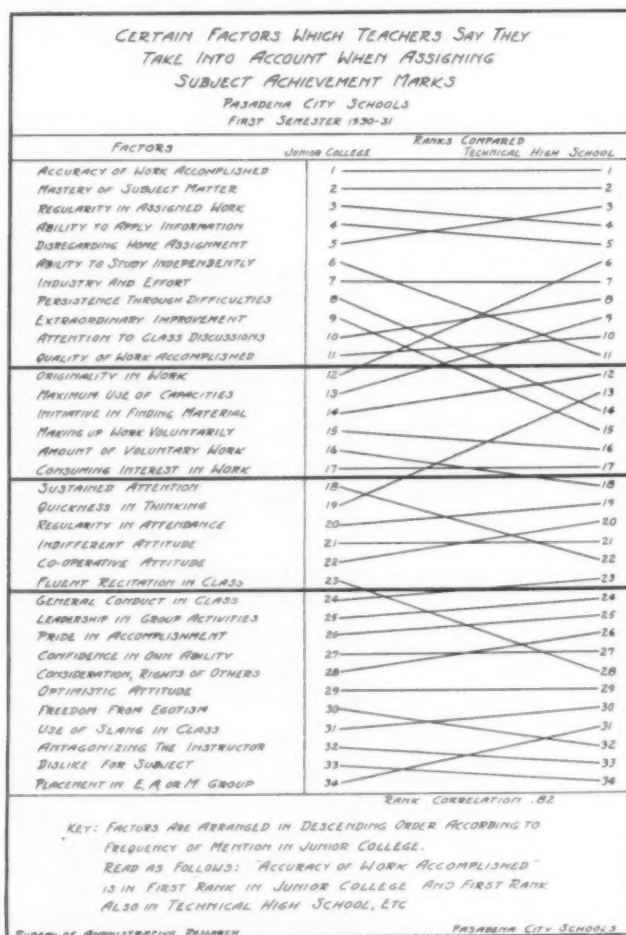


Chart 2.

Although one of these institutions includes grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve; and the other, grades eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen, the rank correlation of .82 for the thirty-four factors of the list indicates a rather common attitude with respect to the consideration of these factors in the marking of subject achievement by teachers.

It will be noted that none of the factors ranked

in the upper third by Pasadena Junior College falls as low as median rank in the Technical High School and that of all the factors ranked in the upper half of the list in the former institution, only one falls below median rank in the latter. Even with respect to this one, the displacement is comparatively negligible.

Check Marks With Standardized Tests

What should go into the mark for subject mastery? The answer to this question depends upon the nature and content of the subject. Those responsible for the curriculum have usually determined what information, skills and abilities are to be attempted in each subject. Insofar as these are essential they should receive chief consideration when marks are being assigned for subject mastery. There should be general agreement in practice not only among the teachers of a local system but among systems in general throughout the country. Otherwise, the many comparative studies of teachers' marks are meaningless. Maintenance of normal curves of distribution of marks, so frequently advocated, is of no avail when these marks are based on uncommon factors.

Measuring Subject Mastery

If subject mastery is important enough to be taken into account in the cumulative records of pupils, it should be measured or estimated as objectively as possible. Admitting, as we all do, that the standardized tests for achievement do not completely match the contents of local courses, we still maintain that scores made on these tests have very considerable value in determining the relative scholastic standing of pupils. Even if there are some contents of these standardized tests not included in the local courses, all pupils in a given subject are about equally ignorant of these contents because they have not been previously exposed to them and, as a result, the relative standings in the class are unaffected. The comparative results for a given group of pupils would be practically the same as if we had devised a test based entirely upon the contents of local courses and then thrown in contents about which all members of the group were ignorant. This would neither subtract from nor add to the scores already made. By a similar process of reasoning, we are of the opinion that if "progressive" contents, peculiar only to the local courses of study, were added to the "hand-me-down" tests, the relative standing of pupils in a given group would not be materially affected.

We are advocating, therefore, that standardized test results be used as a check on the teachers' marks. Any principal or supervisor who finds

CHECK LIST OF PERSONAL HABITS AND ATTITUDES OF PUPIL

<i>Questions to Be Answered by Checking in Appropriate Columns</i>	<i>Very Low Degree</i>	<i>About Average</i>	<i>Very High Degree</i>
Does he make maximum use of his capacities?	_____	_____	_____
Does he have sufficient regard for home assignments?	_____	_____	_____
Does he evince ability to study independently?	_____	_____	_____
Does he show originality in doing school work?	_____	_____	_____
Does he do a reasonable amount of voluntary work?	_____	_____	_____
Does he demonstrate ability to apply information?	_____	_____	_____
Does he give attention to class discussion?	_____	_____	_____
Does he evince regularity in doing assigned work?	_____	_____	_____
Does he exercise initiative in finding materials for work?	_____	_____	_____
Does he do a sufficient quantity of school work?	_____	_____	_____
Does he show an inclination to make up work missed?	_____	_____	_____
Does he uphold his end of talk in conversation?	_____	_____	_____
Does he seem cooperative toward his fellows?	_____	_____	_____
Does he possess personal qualities for leadership?	_____	_____	_____
Does he accept authority graciously?	_____	_____	_____
Does he evince an even-tempered disposition?	_____	_____	_____
Does he react favorably to unpleasant situations?	_____	_____	_____
Does he show a tendency to cooperate with the instructor?	_____	_____	_____
Does he evidence an inclination to fair-mindedness?	_____	_____	_____
Does he show originality in work of his own selection?	_____	_____	_____
Does he evince confidence in his own ability?	_____	_____	_____
Does he seem to be improving in school attitude?	_____	_____	_____
Does he seem interested in the required work of the subject?	_____	_____	_____
Does he seem to possess a surplus of physical energy?	_____	_____	_____
Does he evidence courage when confronted with a difficult task?	_____	_____	_____

wide and unexplainable discrepancies between teachers' marks and standardized test scores for achievement has a practical supervisory problem to solve. Of course, slight discrepancies of this kind are to be expected, but when any pupil whose achievement as measured by standardized tests is from two to five years ahead of the average for his age and grade, low marks constantly received are indicative of a violation of the principles that should govern in marking.

Rating scales have been found useful in checking teachers' marks for achievement. Most of the scales in use, however, are too limited in the scope of factors considered. A simple and, at the same time, a more elaborate check list has been found useful in this connection. The accompanying check list is illustrative. It will be noted that the list includes most of the factors that the teachers taking part in this study have indicated as having some importance.

Some, no doubt, will be staggered by the scope of this list. It does not, in fact, cover the ground completely enough. If, as some persons are advocating, a report form should be used in which "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory" take the place of more exact terms, it is difficult to imagine how anything less extensive in scope could answer the purpose. To mark "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory" requires far more data and judgment on the part of the teacher than to indicate merely that the pupil has attained a certain degree of subject

matter achievement. To say with any degree of certainty that the pupil's accomplishment is either satisfactory or unsatisfactory requires definite information both concerning his subject mastery, objectively measured, and his habits, attitudes and other personal qualities. Two pupils, for example, may be equally competent in a given subject, but one is making maximum use of his capacity while the other is using only about 50 per cent of his capacity. To mark the latter as "satisfactory" would be misleading as well as harmful. Other illustrations could be given to indicate the complexity and difficulty of any marking system calculated to report in terms of satisfactoriness and unsatisfactoriness on the pupil's total accomplishment.

Following are several suggestions that may be helpful in solving the marking problem:

1. Put into practice the general principle that in recording and reporting we should keep apart the things that are different. This means that the records for subject matter achievement should be independent of ratings on personal traits.

2. Settle upon the form in which subject matter achievement is to be recorded. There are certain advantages in the A, B, C, D, E and F marks generally used in cumulative records and reports. A smaller number of marks may be found desirable if they are properly defined. But, in any case, the symbols used should definitely

indicate subject matter achievement objectively measured.

3. The report to parents on subject matter achievement may or may not be in the same terms as those used in the cumulative records. We should keep constantly in mind that the purposes of the pupil's cumulative record in the principal's office and the reports to parents are, or should be, very different.

4. Settle upon a list of personal habits and attitudes that are to be developed in pupils and adopt a workable technique for refining the teacher's estimates of these. The lists already prepared contain a number that by consensus of teachers are important. By further study we should be able to refine the list. The techniques for refining estimates of such qualities, however, should be in line with the best that specialists in this field have devised.

5. Devise a report form that will convey significant information to the parent. While the types of data that may be reported to the parent should be standardized and uniform throughout the system, the information given concerning any pupil should be in accordance with individual needs. An "increasing confidence in ability to succeed" may be most welcome information in one case, while a "cooperative attitude" may be most welcome information in another. The point being made here is that a certain degree of uniformity as well as diversity is essential in reporting to parents.

6. We should go one step further. Let us have reports from parents to the school. The general purpose of these should be to develop a better understanding between the home and the school. Cooperation in the handling of the pupil cannot be accomplished when talking and reporting are taking place in only one direction.

Tells Educators Schools Must Teach Self-Government

The need for self-government in the high school was stressed in a paper presented by Richard Welling, chairman, National Self-Government Committee, Inc., at the annual meeting of the National Educational Association, held at Atlantic City, N. J. Mr. Welling spoke before the National Conference on Student Participation on June 30.

He pointed out that our forefathers blazed the trail for a democracy founded upon a new kind of universal public school education, but that school teachers for the most part have failed to advance these theories in their teaching.

Mr. Welling said it was George Washington's desire for youth to acquire "knowledge in the principles of politics and good government." He emphasized that President Washington placed "politics" even before "good government," for unless the people have studied practical politics it is impossible to secure good local, state and national government, he said.

"If children do not learn to bear responsibility and cooperate with their teachers in school," he said, "they are not learning how to live in a democracy. Through ignorance and indolence we have made politics a game of graft. Instead of making light of student politicians who have their own candidates and campaigns, let us welcome these laboratory experiences and guide and direct them. Only thus will the young be fit to grapple with the two big tasks facing us: (1) The merit system of testing all applicants so that Government will have only able workers and no political loafers; (2) proportional representation which gives full minority representation on all city boards and councils that will appoint city managers."

America's Increasing Interest in Higher Education

Americans have set a world example in their keen interest in education, as year after year greater numbers attend high school and colleges, according to David T. Blose, statistician, Office of Education.

Mr. Blose cites figures to show that graduates of colleges more than doubled in the last ten years while the number of living graduates for the whole country reached 1,740,744, of which 1,115,366 are men. There is no abatement in the number who attend college year after year. There is, however, a remarkable increase in the number of women attending college.

At present fourteen out of every 1,000 in the United States are college graduates. Nine are men and five are women. Of every 1,000 persons, seventy-five are graduates of high schools. Of this number thirty-one are boys and forty-four are girls. There are in the country today 9,173,891 living high school graduates. The girls outnumber the boys. There are 3,761,295 men graduates compared with 5,412,596 women high school graduates. The number includes both public and private secondary school graduates.

The United States is a leader in public education. College graduates in 1922 numbered 48,622. It is estimated that in 1932 there were graduated 131,500 college students.

New San Antonio School Protected Against Industrial Intrusion

Radio, house telephone system, unusual ventilating arrangement, acoustically treated ceilings, health education unit and modern cafeteria are among features of city's new high school

By THOMAS B. PORTWOOD, Assistant Superintendent, Senior Division, Board of Education, San Antonio, Tex.

FOLLOWING the decision of the citizens of San Antonio, Tex., to vote bonds for the erection of a senior high school for the north and northwest sections of the city, the question of proper location for the building at once arose.

San Antonio has had the experience of two large senior high schools being encroached upon by business interests as the firms spread their activities from the center of the city to outlying sec-

tions. One of these schools, a 2,200-pupil institution, had been almost completely enveloped by the industrial expansion.

Consequently, the board of education acting on the advice of the superintendent of schools decided to choose a site remote from the business section of the city, but at the same time in the path of future city growth.

Since this school was to be a self-contained unit

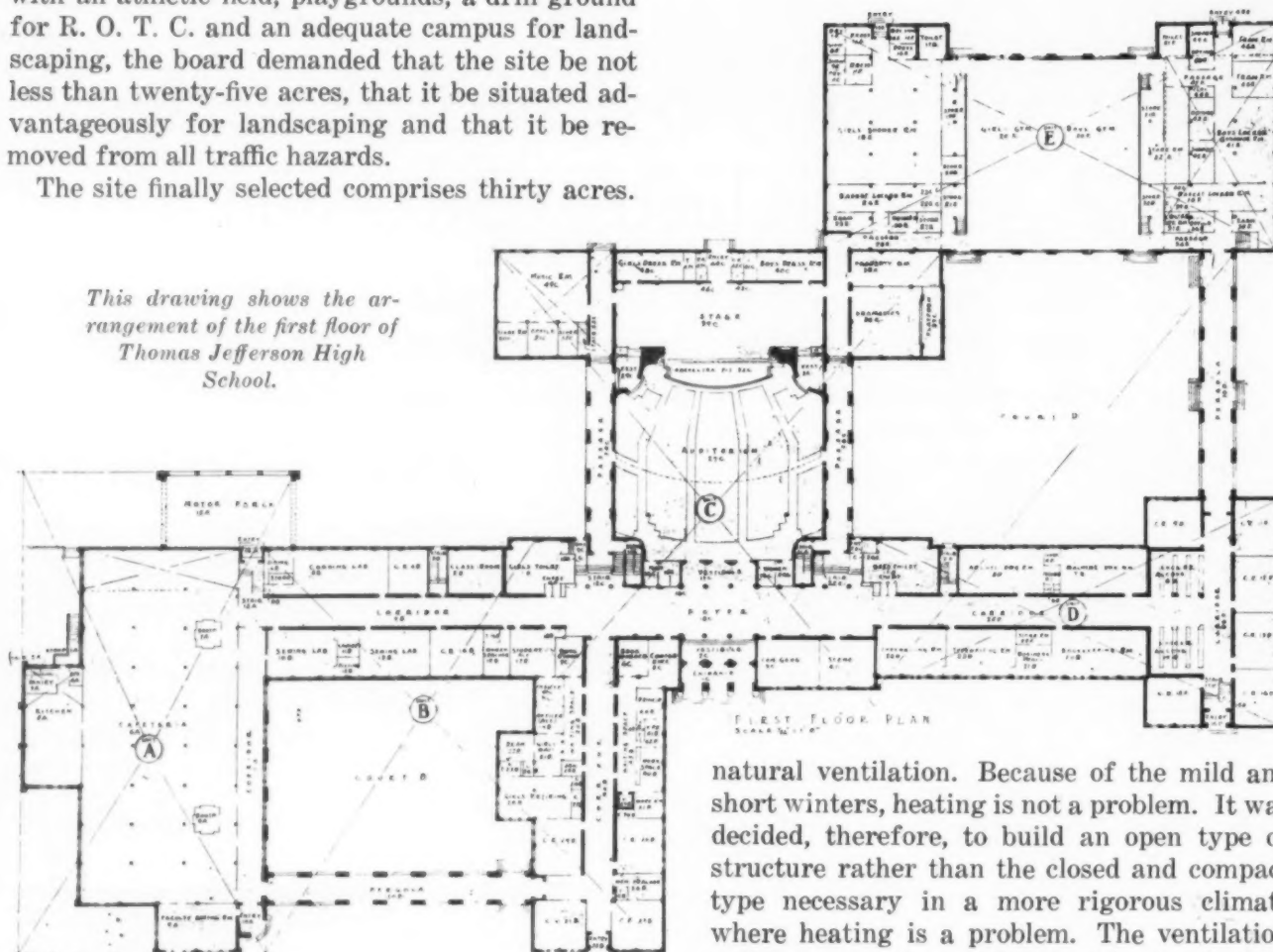


The spacious corridors with beamed, colored ceilings lend a Spanish atmosphere to the building.

with an athletic field, playgrounds, a drill ground for R. O. T. C. and an adequate campus for landscaping, the board demanded that the site be not less than twenty-five acres, that it be situated advantageously for landscaping and that it be removed from all traffic hazards.

The site finally selected comprises thirty acres.

This drawing shows the arrangement of the first floor of Thomas Jefferson High School.



It is a high and beautifully oriented piece of ground directly in the path of the future growth of the northwest section of San Antonio. An important feature of the contract covering the purchase of the site was the restriction that only residences could be erected within 600 feet of the property line.

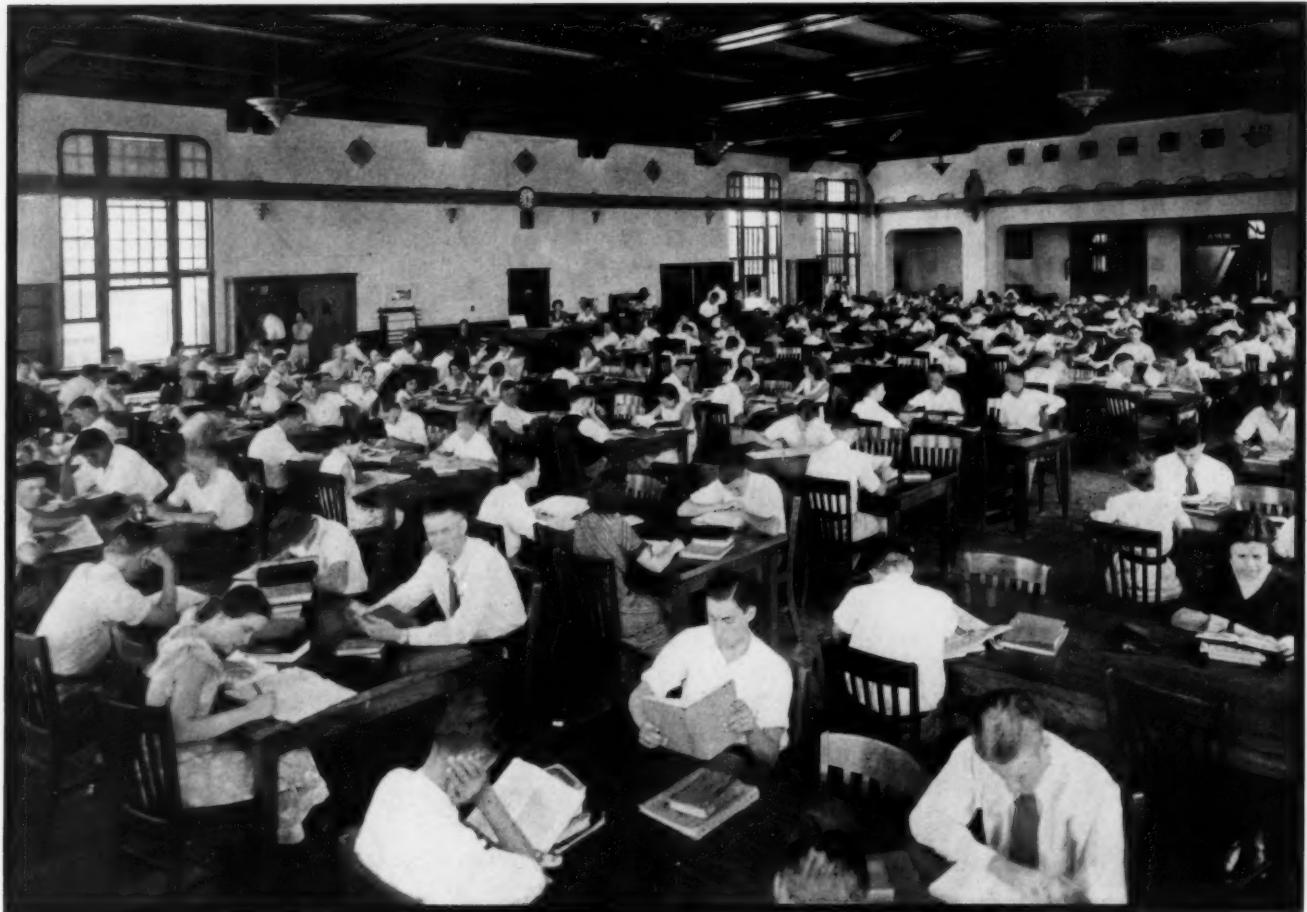
The building was planned by Adams and Adams, architects, San Antonio, who worked in conjunction with the firm of Phelps and Dewees, general architects for the San Antonio board of education.

In planning school buildings for South and Southwest Texas it is necessary to provide for

natural ventilation. Because of the mild and short winters, heating is not a problem. It was decided, therefore, to build an open type of structure rather than the closed and compact type necessary in a more rigorous climate where heating is a problem. The ventilation problem was yet more fully met by turning the building about fifteen degrees from a true north and south axis so as to face more directly southeast. This, together with certain structural features that will be mentioned later, has given almost perfect cross ventilation in practically all parts of the building.

The Spanish type of architecture was chosen so that the Thomas Jefferson High School might perpetuate in its architectural tone the traditions of the old Southwest. This type of architecture lends itself so perfectly to the demands of natural ventilation that every unit and classroom of the school receives a full share of the southeast or gulf breeze which usually prevails in San Antonio.





There are no study halls at the school. A library seating more than 400 pupils is used instead.

In keeping with the style of architecture, the structure is of light buff brick trimmed in cast stone to match. When viewed in the mellowing light of a sunset the effect is glorious.

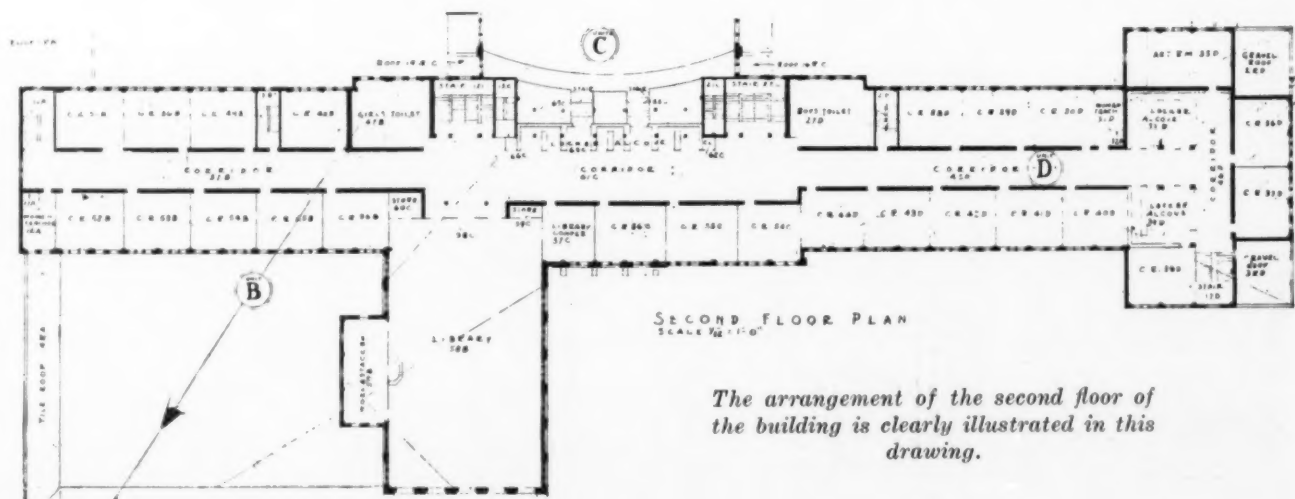
The building has three divisions—central division, cafeteria division and health division. The divisions are separated by courtyards, but they are linked by open arcades which serve as traffic corridors from one unit to another and also facilitate ventilation.

The central unit is composed of the auditorium,

the library, the administrative suite, the science, music, art, dramatic arts and home economics departments and some fifty classrooms.

The auditorium is built to seat 2,000 pupils. It has a large stage flanked on one side by the music department and on the other by the dramatic arts and public speech department. This arrangement affords these departments easy access to the stage without requiring the pupils to move through the building.

The auditorium, with its colorful Moorish and



The arrangement of the second floor of the building is clearly illustrated in this drawing.

Aztec decorations, is in harmony with the exterior architecture. Indirect lighting is employed which gives a beautiful effect.

Study halls of the traditional type are missing at Thomas Jefferson. The beautiful library seating 400 pupils provides a work environment that is pleasant and attractive and takes the place of the formal study halls that are so wasteful of space and pupil energy. It is in the center of the building and is indeed the heart of the school. It has three outside exposures that make the room light and airy at all times.

Laboratories Are Well Ventilated

The administrative suite consists of the offices of the principal, the vice principal, the dean of girls, the attendance clerk, the guidance director, and conference rooms. Adjoining the dean's office is a girls' retiring room equipped with hospital beds. This suite is easily accessible from any division of the building.

The entire third floor of the building is devoted to science. This arrangement ensures ventilation for laboratories and removes from the rest of the school the usual laboratory odors and gases. The department consists of chemistry, physics, biology and physiology laboratories and a lecture room seating about 100 pupils. Each laboratory has built-in cabinets with adequate preparation and storage rooms adjoining. All the chemistry laboratories are equipped with automatic fume hood tables for removing fumes. Low voltage current, controlled from wall switchboards, is supplied to each table.

An auditorium type of room which seats 125 pupils is designed for the dramatic arts and pub-

lic speech department. A small fully equipped stage enables the instructor to employ the laboratory method in this work.

The music department is to the right of the stage. It is equipped with storage compartments for musical instruments, raised seats for choral and glee club work and small rooms for individual instruction. The walls and ceiling are acoustically treated.

The health education unit consists of a large gymnasium with a dividing curtain in the center, thus giving two distinct playing floors if needed. Each floor contains a basketball court, 80 by 42 feet, which may be used for volley ball or other games. One floor is for boys and the other for girls. A large playing floor is made available for important competitive games by raising the center curtain. The gymnasium has permanent seats for about 2,000 spectators.

Shower and dressing rooms for boys and girls are on each side of the gymnasium. Two thousand pupils are provided for in this manner. The basket system is used for taking care of pupils' clothing.

Six Service Lines in Cafeteria

Office space, examination rooms and other facilities are included in the health education department's equipment.

Adjacent to the gymnasium is a large athletic field with a fine running track, a football field and a general play field. Tennis courts, R. O. T. C. drill ground and armory are also provided. The armory is beneath the gymnasium, but opens on to the R. O. T. C. drill ground.

The cafeteria serves about 1,800 pupils daily in



The entrance to the cafeteria is shown at the left of the picture. This unit is connected with the main building by a corridor and an arcade. A small teachers' dining room with its own steam counters is adjacent to the main cafeteria.



The auditorium seats 2,000 pupils and has been called a fine example of Spanish and Aztec design. Indirect lighting is used which enhances the effect of the decorations.

two luncheon periods. It is a large well ventilated room set apart from the main unit by an open court and connected to it by a corridor and an arcade. There are six service lines, three on each side. Tables and chairs of silver gray oak and rustproof metal fixtures go to make up the equipment. The unit is equipped with handwashing jets built into the lines for the pupils' use. A small teachers' dining room with its own steam counters is adjacent to the main cafeteria. The main kitchen adjoins the cafeteria, thereby eliminating lifts.

The Classroom Equipment

Each classroom accommodates forty pupils. Standard equipment includes movable tablet arm chairs, a built-in bookcase, a built-in steel locker for the teacher's use, a clock, a house telephone and a radio speaker. All special rooms have built-in wall cases and lockers which are needed for various types of work. Each room has ventilating transoms and also grills through the walls into corridors for air passage. Blackboard and cork bulletin boards complete the room.

The school is built on a concrete piling founda-

tion with headroom beneath the first floor for all plumbing. There are no basement or semibase-ment rooms, except a small caretaker's apartment.

The roof is of tile in keeping with the Spanish design. There are expansion joints at intervals to allow for settling, which constitutes a problem with heavy buildings in this locality.

Radio Programs Can Be Controlled

The floors throughout the building are of asphalt tile laid in blocks one foot square. Various color combinations are found in different rooms. The ceilings are all acoustically treated, and as a result the building is exceptionally quiet.

All of the interior doors are equipped with push and pull plates and are hung on closers, thus eliminating door knobs and latches. The doors are equipped with master locks using keys.

The lockers are recessed in corridors and placed in alcoves. Locker rooms have been entirely eliminated.

With the exception of the auditorium, all ventilation is of the natural, open window type. Steam is used for the heating system. In the gymnasium, cafeteria and armory units, heaters of

the steam coil type are used. The auditorium employs a combination hot air and unit heater system. The fan system provides ventilation in this unit.

The building is equipped throughout with radio facilities. Outside programs are received by a central receiver that is entirely selective with regard to rooms. A program may be sent to one room or to all of them. All parts of the building are connected by a house telephone system. The auditorium is equipped with a public address system and a motion picture projector.

The landscaping scheme provides terraced lawns and plantings of various shrubs and trees, of both native and "foreign" origin. These add much to the general beauty of the building.

The cost of the school including the general building contract, the plumbing, heating and electrical contracts and the architects' fees was \$905,000. The cubic foot cost, based on the above items, was approximately 24½ cents.

The total cost for educational equipment was \$120,000. The cost of cafeteria and cafeteria kitchen equipment was \$39,000. This gives a cubic foot cost for the building completely equipped of 28 7/10 cents.

Is Your Heating Plant Burning "Dollars"?

Inefficient operation of a school's heating and power plant is a money wasting proposition. Since each school building presents its individual problem, it is necessary to treat this phase of building operation in a general way only.

Not only is there a wide variance in types of heating plants but there are also three sources of energy, says R. B. Robley in discussing possible economies in this phase of building operation in *Buildings and Building Management*. They are individual plant coal generated steam, oil generated and purchased steam supply. Among the suggestions offered by Mr. Robley for instilling economies are:

The type of operating personnel is of utmost importance. Employees should be selected on the basis of experience and intelligence. When licensed engineers are required by ordinance, these should be men of broad experience and proved ability, not the type who merely skin under the wire with a third-class certificate. The care of the refrigeration plant and the house plumbing are the responsibility of this force.

The sources of waste in such a plant are varied and definite. They can be spotted and checked:

improper grade of fuel and improper methods of handling it; indiscriminate and poorly supervised selection and purchase of supplies; poorly trained personnel, resulting in lack of appreciation of the essentials and possibilities of economy; lack of definitely established inspection routine and reports.

Supplies such as oils, lubricating grease, boiler compounds, and wiping rags should be handled in much the same way as cleaning supplies. Proper standards should be set and maintained. Sources of supplies should be checked for reliability and for assurance of the availability of materials at all times.

Make Repairs Promptly

The kind of fuel best suited to each plant should be determined and contracts let on the basis of the season's requirements. Barge load deliveries should be specified where storage facilities permit of this arrangement.

The adoption of a type of grate bar and associated blower equipment to permit the use of the lower grades and sizes of anthracite coal should be considered. The initial cost will soon be offset by the saving accruing from this change.

A study of the various types of mechanical stoker equipment may be advantageous where such an installation is warranted.

Hand firing will be a prolific source of waste if the process is not competently supervised and the firemen are not thoroughly trained in approved and economical methods. A rigid and continuous inspection of all high pressure and house traps should be maintained.

Pressure regulating apparatus, either manual or automatic, should be installed in the heating system.

Flue temperature should be constantly watched and a temperature recorder installed.

Steam output should be accurately controlled to meet varying weather conditions.

Boiler side walls should be kept in good repair, to prevent air leakage. All equipment including main plant, auxiliary and associated apparatus should be maintained in first-class condition and at maximum efficiency. This can be accomplished by instilling in the minds of the personnel, a pride in the appearance of their equipment. Waste in the plumbing system, for which this force is responsible, can be kept at a minimum through constant inspection of all faucets, flushometers and flush tanks, and by prompt and adequate repairs to prevent unnecessary water waste. Flushometers should be set and maintained so as to deliver only a minimum but adequate supply of water.

Ways to Create School Revenues

As exemplified by income tax legislation in Missouri, revision of the property tax in Utah and the growth of state responsibility in school finance in North Carolina

By WILLIAM G. CARR, Director, Research Division, National Education Association

ANY discussion of school revenue legislation must give first and major attention to taxation. Ninety-five per cent of the current cost of public schools is paid for by state and local taxes. The legislative importance of school taxes is further suggested by the frequency with which the problem is considered by state legislatures. In 1929 forty-six state legislatures were in session and eighteen of these discussed school tax legislation of major importance. In 1930 nineteen legislatures met, out of which twelve discussed legislation significantly affecting school taxes. In 1931 forty-six legislatures convened and no less than thirty-six discussed important school tax measures.¹

The Economists Were Right

State legislatures make no decisions of greater importance than those affecting the revenues of the public schools. The state constitutions usually direct the legislature to provide a free public school system throughout the state, but the methods by which the necessary funds are to be raised is usually left to the discretion and ingenuity of the legislature. Upon these legislative decisions rest not merely the welfare and efficiency of the state educational system but often the future progress and welfare of the state as a whole. Responsibility for wise decisions rests not merely with the legislator and the financier but also with educational leaders. Since the efficiency and even the very existence of a free, public school system depend so largely on the revenue laws enacted for its support, educators have a professional duty to become familiar with the principles of taxation and with the progress made in applying these principles to school support through state laws.

The dominant theme in the medley of recent tax discussion and legislation is definite dissatisfaction with the heavy reliance on the general property tax as generally administered for state purposes. The current economic unpleasantness

has added volume to the protest. After forty years of indifference to expert advice, the general public has at last discovered that economists and tax experts have been everlastingly right all along in declaring that the general property tax is unfit to serve as the corner stone of a modern tax system.

How have the state legislatures been meeting this issue? A complete answer to this question would require a review of state tax legislation considered or enacted in the last ten years or more. In these years new sources of public revenue have been sought and found, accepted or rejected; the fairness of various types of taxes has been tested and debated; and the best methods for administering state tax programs have been sought. In this article three types of legislative measures will be reviewed. Income tax legislation will be illustrated by the experience of Missouri. Revision of the property tax will be illustrated by Utah. North Carolina will be used as an illustration of the growth of state responsibility in school finance. The tendencies named have been selected because they appear to be particularly marked at the present moment. The states have been selected, not because their new laws necessarily represent the best that could be devised, but on account of the recency of the revenue laws enacted by them.

Putting an Income Tax to Work: Missouri

The property tax, which seems to be causing no small part of our present difficulties, is based on the assumption that we should contribute to the support of our government in proportion to the amount that we possess. The income tax assumes that we may pay taxes in accordance with what we receive. In 1930 sixteen states had a personal income tax and twelve states levied a tax on the incomes of corporations. In 1931 no less than twenty-five states considered such laws. In the same year four new income tax laws were enacted and four old laws were extensively revised.

¹State School Legislation, 1929, 1930, 1931. Studies in State Educational Administration, Nos. 1, 6 and 10. National Education Association, Research Division, Washington, D. C.

Before 1917 Missouri's experience with the income tax was limited to an emergency law enacted during the Civil War. A demand for an income tax arose again in 1917 when state revenues amounted to one and one-half million dollars less than appropriations. To meet the deficit, the legislature enacted a law imposing a tax of one-half per cent on taxable income. The law allowed rather liberal exemptions and the revenue was further reduced by permitting the taxpayer to subtract from his income tax any amounts paid in property taxes. Corporations organized for educational, charitable or religious purposes were also exempted. The low flat rates, the liberal exemptions and the property tax offset combined to make the returns from the tax meager and unimportant. Even after years of tinkering and adjustment, the income tax was yielding in 1930 only one-twelfth of the state's tax collections.

Meanwhile state expenditures had increased. The year 1929 found building and improvement programs at state institutions blocked and the state educational program severely handicapped. The governor and the legislature thereupon provided for a commission to ascertain the fiscal needs of the state and to recommend sources of additional state revenue. This commission presented its final report on November 30, 1929, proposing additional income and corporation franchise taxes and a public school bill which provided for larger participation by the state in school finance. After some compromise the legislature enacted an income tax measure as an amendment to the income tax law already on the statute books.

Income Tax Is Complicated

This latest amendment provides for the tax on personal incomes, a new schedule of rates making it a graduated tax rather than a flat one. It raises the rate on corporations to two per cent. Previous amendments had already decreased exemptions and deductions. As the law stands now the net income of resident corporations and the income from all sources within the state of nonresident corporations are taxed at the rate of two per cent. The net taxable income of resident individuals and the income from sources within the state of nonresident individuals are taxed at rates ranging from one per cent on net taxable incomes under \$1,000, up to four per cent on \$9,000 and more. A number of corporations are exempted including labor or agricultural organizations, mutual savings banks, building and loan associations, certain fraternal organizations, social or religious associations not organized for profit, certain farmers' cooperatives, federal land

banks and public utilities performing functions for federal, state or local governments. Proceeds are payable to the state general revenue fund, but the laws of the state require that one-third of this fund shall be appropriated for the use of the public schools.

The experience of Missouri in its fifteen years of experimentation with an income tax thus conveniently brings to our attention several of the major problems of income tax legislation: the coordination of state and federal income tax laws, the flexibility of the tax to meet unusual needs for revenue, the allowance of a property tax offset against the amount of income tax due, the use of graduated or uniform rates, the allocation of proceeds to various functions of government, and the especially vexing problem of taxing incomes that are derived partly from business within and partly from business outside the state. These problems should be sufficient to suggest the fallacy of thinking that "all our troubles will be over if we can only enact a state income tax law." An income tax is a useful and powerful piece of fiscal machinery, but it is a complicated machine and it will not operate itself.

Reforming the Property Tax: Utah

There are still good tax doctors who have an encouraging word for the property tax. They admit that the tax is in bad health and bad repute, but they believe that its ailments are due to overwork. By proper treatment they hope to make the property tax a useful fiscal instrument. Perhaps the principal remedy suggested is to tax different kinds of property at different rates. By this means it is hoped that some of the evils that now mark the administration of the property tax may be avoided. The recent legislation in Utah will illustrate the problem and one way of meeting it.

In 1896 when Utah was admitted as a state, its constitution, in common with that of most other states of the Union, provided for a revenue system based entirely upon the old property tax. Property, it declared, included "monies, credits, bonds, stocks, franchises and all matters and things real, personal and mixed, capable of private ownership." The constitution carefully avoided double taxation, such as taxation of stocks in corporations, the property of which had already been taxed. It exempted "the property of the United States, of the state, counties, cities, towns, school districts, municipal corporations and public libraries, lots with buildings thereon used exclusively for either religious work or charitable purposes and places of burial not held or used for private or corporate benefit." All other property,

with the exception of mines, was to be assessed according to its value in money and the legislature was to provide by law a uniform and equal rate of assessment and taxation. "All property in the state shall be taxed in proportion to its value," the constitution stated. "The legislature shall provide by law a uniform and equal rate of assessment and taxation on all property of the state, so that every person and corporation shall pay a tax in proportion to the value of his, her, or its property."

The New Plan

From the beginning mines were excepted from the application of the uniform rule, but the otherwise uniform tax has given rise to a series of problems. The taxpayer could not easily hide his tangible property (real estate, buildings, machinery, livestock, furniture, merchandise) from the eyes of the assessor. But under a system where bonds, stocks, money, credits and judgments are taxed on full value at general property tax rates, the taxpayer could and did conceal these assets. As a result, real property became overburdened while much personal property, especially intangibles, entirely escaped taxation.

Just four years after the adoption of the constitution, a series of amendments to the tax provisions were proposed in the hope of establishing in actual practice the principles of equality and justice set forth in the constitution. This process continued at regular intervals down to the present day. These efforts, however, were for the most part superficial and perhaps only one prior to 1929 gave any worth while relief. Conditions, in fact, grew steadily worse. To meet the situation, the classification of property for tax purposes so that rates on intangible property would be lower than on tangible property was suggested. States using the classified property tax had found that the temptation to hide intangibles was not so great as under the uniform rule.

The 1929 legislature decided to make a careful study of the whole question of constitutional limitations relative to taxation before attempting to frame any laws. For this study, the legislature created the Utah Tax Revision Commission consisting of three persons to be appointed by the governor and a legislative committee, the Utah Legislative Tax Committee, to work in connection with the commission. The study was to include other states as well as Utah.

As a result of this study, the legislature presented in 1930 for vote of the people four amendments to the state constitution which had to do entirely with revision of the tax laws. One of these provided for a classified property tax under

which the legislature may tax intangibles and personal property at a different rate from that placed on real property. The other amendments levied a graduated income tax, proceeds to go into the school fund and the state general fund, created a strong tax commission with authority to administer the tax laws of the state and to equalize assessments in the various taxing units, permitted the legislature after 1935 to work out and apply a tax on mines based on net income and provided for more liberal educational support by means of a new equalization fund. All of these amendments were adopted.

As a result the state's contribution toward the support of public education in Utah will in the future be much greater than in the past. In 1927-28 all school money from state sources, including the permanent school fund, amounted to \$3,790,000 or approximately one-third of the total cost of public schools. The newly established equalizing fund is \$750,000 and the new classified property tax and graduated income tax will make it possible to add still more to the state's participation in school finance. Utah, then, is an example of a state which has not placed all of its eggs in the indirect tax basket, but which has made an attempt to refurbish the old property tax and restore it to respectability and usefulness.

State Support of Education: North Carolina

All of the changes in taxation methods that have been described up to this point, and many others that might have been described, require state participation in tax administration and strongly suggest some state control over the collection and expenditure of tax revenues. This tendency is revealed in several ways—through the establishment and strengthening of state tax commissions; through the adoption of statewide surveys, either of school revenue problems alone or of taxation in general; through larger state apportionments for education; through state control over local financial affairs, and, especially at present, through attempts to reduce or regulate local school budgets, by state review and if deemed necessary by state revision.

A unique recent example of state participation and control in school finance matters is furnished by North Carolina. The essential provision of the law enacted in 1931 is that the state assumes the entire cost for maintaining the public schools on state standards for the entire constitutional term of six months. This is a radical departure from established custom, the full implications of which cannot yet be seen.

When the general assembly of North Carolina met in 1931, it faced a difficult tax situation. The

assessment of real property was inequitable, subject to violent and unpredictable changes, and based on the inflated values prevailing a decade before. Land taxes were so high that property on which taxes were delinquent could not be sold by the county sheriffs. Taxes were, therefore, in many cases, uncollected and uncollectible. Counties had borrowed money to keep schools open and had anticipated future revenues by paying teachers' salaries in scrip of doubtful negotiable value. The attempts of the previous legislature to meet these problems had not only been unsuccessful, but had on the whole made matters worse.

Counties Given Free Hand

The constitution of the state required the maintenance at public expense of at least six months of school throughout the state. This constitutional provision has recently been regarded by the courts as mandatory, no matter what tax rate might be necessary to provide it. Furthermore the legislature had from time to time enacted a series of state minimum requirements for this six months of school, notably a statewide minimum teachers' salary law.

For the past thirty years it had become increasingly evident that some counties were financially unable to meet the requirements for the constitution without help from the state treasury. In response to this demand, larger and larger sums of money were distributed to the counties by the state. The equalizing fund was increased from \$800,000 to \$5,250,000 in the space of ten years. Still the county property tax rates mounted upward, and the burden of school support yielded school tax rates varying all the way from twenty-one cents to eighty-six cents.

Faced with these problems, the general assembly decided to pay the entire cost of the minimum constitutional program. Every part of the state may thus have six months of school on state standards without raising a penny of local school tax. The phrase "entire cost" means everything necessary to run the schools—all salaries, supplies, fixed charges and supervisory and administrative expenses. Of course the state fixes its own standards of cost for these items. The schools are to be operated in every county at state expense and on state standards of cost. But every county is free to operate better schools than those provided by the state. Furthermore, any district may at a special election vote to maintain a term of more than six months. This extended term is supported partly by the district concerned and partly by the state, the contributions of the latter being on an equalization basis.

The practical inauguration of this plan involved

two important adjustments: (1) the state revenues were significantly increased by state indirect and property taxes and these additional funds were applied to the support of schools; (2) the operating cost of the six months term was reduced by lowering the approved state minimum standards. It was provided, however, that no teacher's salary should be reduced more than ten per cent below the state minimum salary schedules. The teaching load was increased and many other retrenchments had to be made in order that the augmented state school fund might be large enough to meet the cost of the six months term. The school people of the state apparently regard these budget cuts as temporary adjustments not essentially connected with the new revenue plan.

The sources of revenue for the increased state school fund include increased franchise taxes on railroads, power companies and other utilities, increased corporation income taxes and a tax on dividends from stock in certain corporations. A state property tax of fifteen cents was also levied. This tax replaces the former county school taxes which averaged about fifty-one cents.

It is yet too early to make even a preliminary appraisal of the new North Carolina law. There appears to be little doubt but that it will significantly reduce the local tax on real estate, equalize and distribute the total tax burden of the state and keep some schools open that might otherwise have been forced to close. These are no small achievements. The economy measures that accompany the present administration of the law also characterize at the present moment the financing of public education throughout the United States. There is some danger, not from state aid or state support but from the way in which the state aid is administered. Whether the North Carolina plan is good or bad remains to be seen. It is clear, however, that North Carolina is only a single illustration of the general trend toward greater state participation in local school support and closer state regulation of local school budgets.

Proper Leadership Is Needed

The tax legislation enacted in the past few years and the present legislative situation in almost every state are convincing proof that our state school revenue systems face extensive overhauling. Changes are certain to occur. Whether these changes will be progressive or reactionary depends in large part upon the leadership given to the people. It is most significant that important new revenue laws have been actively supported, and frequently actually initiated, by the school people of the states concerned. The Utah

law, for example, has been a project of the state education association for many years. The experience of Missouri and North Carolina likewise indicates that when educators know what they want in the way of school revenue legislation, and when their objectives can be supported by sound tax theory, the people, through their legislative representatives, are usually willing to approve their recommendations.

Is not the time here when education, as a profession, should extend its interests and responsibilities to include the methods by which school revenues are created? Without adequate school revenues there can be no adequate schools. Without modern effective tax legislation there can be no adequate school revenues. It is time, I believe, for educational leaders to supplement their demands for generous school support by a constructive program of tax legislation suited to the needs and conditions of each state. This does not mean that every school teacher and every school administrator must become an expert in the details of tax administration. It does not mean that education must go into politics in the narrow sense of that term. It does mean that educational leadership must accept a somewhat new and difficult responsibility. School administrators should be thoroughly familiar with the fundamentals of taxation and should know what the various states of the Union are doing to finance their school systems.

With such a background of authoritative information, public education can contribute to tax legislation a constructive and forward-looking type of leadership that is most sorely needed in the present time of change and adjustment.

A Timely Publication

Many schools and organizations throughout the country will hold celebrations during the school year 1932-33 to commemorate William Penn's landing at New Castle, Del., on November 6, 1682, two hundred and fifty years ago.

His experiment in establishing friendly relations between Indians and white men, people of different races and different stages of civilization, is a particularly appropriate study for children today, when current journals are constantly presenting peace news. The Great Treaty of Peace established by William Penn is known as "the only treaty never sworn to and never broken."

The story of the beginning of William Penn's settlement has been written in vivid style for children of eight to twelve years, by S. Lucia Keim, who is herself a teacher. She has used it suc-

cessfully in her own schoolroom both in story form for children's reading and for dramatization as a pageant. It is adaptable also as the basis for a project in history or social science.

The title of the booklet is "Indians and Quakers, a Story of William Penn, for Boys and Girls to Read and Play." It contains fifteen illustrations, a bibliography and an appendix of pantomime pageant directions, together with diagrams of authentic costumes and the setting. It is being distributed at cost by the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, 1924 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia. The price is 35 cents a copy (30 cents in lots of ten), postage prepaid.

Some Problems of Education by Radio

The classroom teacher occupies an important position in the broadcast teaching-learning situation, in the opinion of C. M. Koon, senior specialist in education by radio, United States Office of Education, according to the *United States Daily*. "After all, pupils are possessed of the same abilities to learn and afflicted by the same resistance to instruction when they are taught by radio as when they are taught in any other way," he points out.

"As leaders in educational theory and practice, supervisors and directors of instruction have the responsibility of determining whether or not the radio should be admitted into the school," according to Mr. Koon. "Their decision should be the result of intelligent scientific consideration of the merits of radio.

"Since the radio is simply a conveyor of sound, its educational value depends upon the way it is used. If properly used, it appears that this marvel of science may be used in many ways to advance the educational process."

Mr. Koon names the following as among the major problems that should be considered in admitting radio to the schools: (1) securing suitable radio-sound equipment for schools; (2) selecting the broadcasting programs to be used; (3) integrating the radio instruction into the curriculum; (4) establishing cooperative relations between the broadcasting teacher and the classroom teacher.

These are essentially problems of education rather than problems of radio transmission, according to Mr. Koon. When they are solved, educators will solve them. Hence, the ultimate place that radio will occupy in education will be determined in a large measure by the educators themselves.



Beverly Hills, Calif., is the site of this attractive school building. In keeping with its name, El Rodeo de las Aguas, the building is typically Spanish in design.



Oregon Initiates a Unified System of Education

The educational experiment afoot in this Western state doubtless will be watched with keen interest by educators the country over and may be the forerunner of similar unifications

By RICHARD H. SYRING, Silverton, Ore.

THE modern trend toward mergers and consolidations, such as are being made in many fields in an effort to reduce expenses, has invaded Oregon's higher educational circles. As a result, the state which gave to the nation the direct primary, the initiative, the referendum and the recall, this fall is presenting for the country's inspection the first one hundred per cent unified system of state colleges, universities and normal schools.

This superexperiment in education, as the plan has been termed, was adopted on March 7, 1932, by the Oregon state board of higher education to meet more than a \$2,000,000 decline in appropriations for higher education. It involves complete

uprooting of major courses and drastic changes in faculty personnel and it is expected to bring about a large measure of economy.

The unification of Oregon's higher educational institutions is a step in the direction of a goal set by the state legislature in 1929 when it abolished five boards of regents and created one board for higher education in the state. Educators believe that the unification is but another step toward the actual physical merger of the university and the state college, which are at Eugene and Corvallis, respectively, but forty miles apart.

Involved in the unification are the University of Oregon at Eugene, the Oregon State College at Corvallis, the Oregon Normal School at Mon-



"The Pioneer" on the University of Oregon campus. Friendly Hall and McClure Hall are in the distance.

mouth, the Eastern Oregon Normal School at La Grande and the Southern Oregon Normal School at Ashland. All five schools will be under the jurisdiction of a chancellor, who, it is expected, will not reside on any of the campuses. Presidents subordinate to the chancellor will be in direct charge at the five schools.

Under the unified system, six major schools will be grouped on the University of Oregon campus and six on the Oregon State College campus. The University of Oregon medical school will continue in Portland. Changes in the curricula of the normal schools will be few.

The six schools at the university will be law; social science; fine arts; physical education; business administration and commerce, and literature, language and arts. Schools at the college will include home economics, agriculture, physical and biological science, engineering, pharmacy and forestry.

Two schools and one department were eliminated when the unification plan was adopted. The school of journalism, for sixteen years at the university, was abolished. The board decided that "journalism wasn't worth keeping as a technical course." The industrial journalism course at the college suffered the same fate. Another major school to go out of existence was the school of mines at the college. The board ruled that "other

Western colleges have capable schools of mines, and Oregon does not need to compete with them on that score." In general, the board sought to eliminate that which other near-by Western states were teaching in the way of specialty courses.

"We were faced with a serious loss of finances," C. C. Colt, chairman of the board's curricula committee, said in explaining the reason for the unification, "and with a mandate for unification and simplification from the people, through their legislature, the board has acted. We have spent months upon our effort, and we are convinced that what we have done is for the best interests of Oregon and its young citizens."

B. F. Irvine, another board member, speaking of the two major institutions declared that "the plan does not unduly penalize either school. There are cuts, and deep ones, but they are made in fairness."

"Lack of money was the thing that brought unification with such a rush," Mr. Colt stated. "The board is \$2,181,000 short of what it formerly had to spend on higher education. Governor Meier lopped \$500,000 from the \$1,181,000 legislative appropriation. The remainder was held up by referendum. Reduced income from the 2.04-millage tax accounts for another \$1,000,000. Tax delinquencies and cuts in assessed valuation



The Administration Building, University of Oregon, Eugene.

of real property have pulled the millage down. Student fees are on the decline. It was and is a sorry picture all the way around."

Oregon's experiment includes considerably more than bringing the higher educational institutions under one chancellor. It includes unification to the last degree. Under the new plan the scholastic work will be divided into two periods—the lower division, consisting of freshman and sophomore students, and the upper division, consisting of juniors, seniors and graduate students.

In many cases the lower division work can be done at either the university or the college. This is along the lines of general education. But the upper division work will be along the line of specialization. The work must be done on the campus where the specialization courses are offered. Under this system a dean will direct elementary activities in his school on both campuses, but will offer the specialization courses only on his own campus.

Educators told the board that while there might be some confusion the first year or two, the system would work out smoothly. They believe that eventually students will enroll in the institution that offers them the major course they will elect in their upper class years.

That the unification might be complete, from the presidency down, an unusual feature of the

new plan will be a building and grounds superintendent. The upkeep and care of the building and grounds of the five institutions involved will be carried out under his direction.

Another feature is the unification of student registration. The board held that the various registrars' officers of the five institutions performed a common function, namely, that of keeping academic records. For the sake of economy and efficiency this fall the registrars' offices will be centralized at Salem, at the headquarters of the state board.

The fanfare of publicity which has gone out from the five institutions to newspapers in Oregon will be minimized, the board believes, with the centralization of the handling of publicity in one bureau under the control of the board. The board declared that it "recognizes the importance of the contacts between the board and the people of the state to whom the board is responsible." The editing and publication of catalogues and catalogue circulars have been centralized in the offices of the board for some time. Also, more than a year ago the board ruled against any educational advertising by any of the five institutions and at the same time restricted talks by faculty members and students before high school pupils, which might in any way influence their choice of a school.



The Memorial Union Building, student, faculty and alumni center on the Oregon State College campus.

One director of student welfare will handle the student health, personnel and housing in all five institutions. One of the few duplications allowed under the unified plan will be in the matter of research. Because research will be carried on in both the university and college fields, there will be a director of research at each institution.

Another of the unusual features of the new set-up is the provision for a director of libraries, one person to have charge of all libraries. The board declared that "each of the institutions under the control of the board maintained separately organized, staffed and equipped library service without the benefit of the use of a great central supply of books and one single staff of highly trained specialists. All the books bought with the state's library funds should be available on any campus as needed and there should be a constant interchange of book stock. The board believes this can be best accomplished under the direction of one head librarian."

One director of extension, to have charge of extension in all of the institutions, is also included under the new plan. The director of extension, under the provisions, will have charge of summer session and short course work, except that provided for by the federal Smith-Lever act and supplementary legislation. A director of lower division, in charge of all freshman and

sophomore classes, is also planned. Special recognition will be given for student completion in this division.

As soon as the program is under way, premedical students, who have heretofore received their work at the university, will receive it at the college, where all the sciences are being grouped. The elimination, in name only, of the school of agriculture and allied arts and school of music at the university is another feature of the revolutionary changes. All duplication above the lower division work is eliminated. Previously, many courses were duplicated in fine arts on both campuses. Music will be offered as a department in the school of fine arts, presided over by a department head who will supervise and control all work in music.

The combining of the two schools of commerce under one school at the university is one of the drastic changes, since in 1931-32 there were approximately 1,200 commerce students at Oregon State College. In unifying the two the board declared, "In the field of commerce and business administration the statements submitted by both institutions show that 317½ credit hours or sixty-five different courses are duplicated. These duplications of work offered at different units of one system, these units being but forty miles apart, are entirely unjustifiable and must be eliminated."

Cubberley: Educational Leader and Prophet

During this year the educational world is doing homage to the dean of the school of education of Stanford University, one who has been in the forefront of educational progress for a quarter of a century

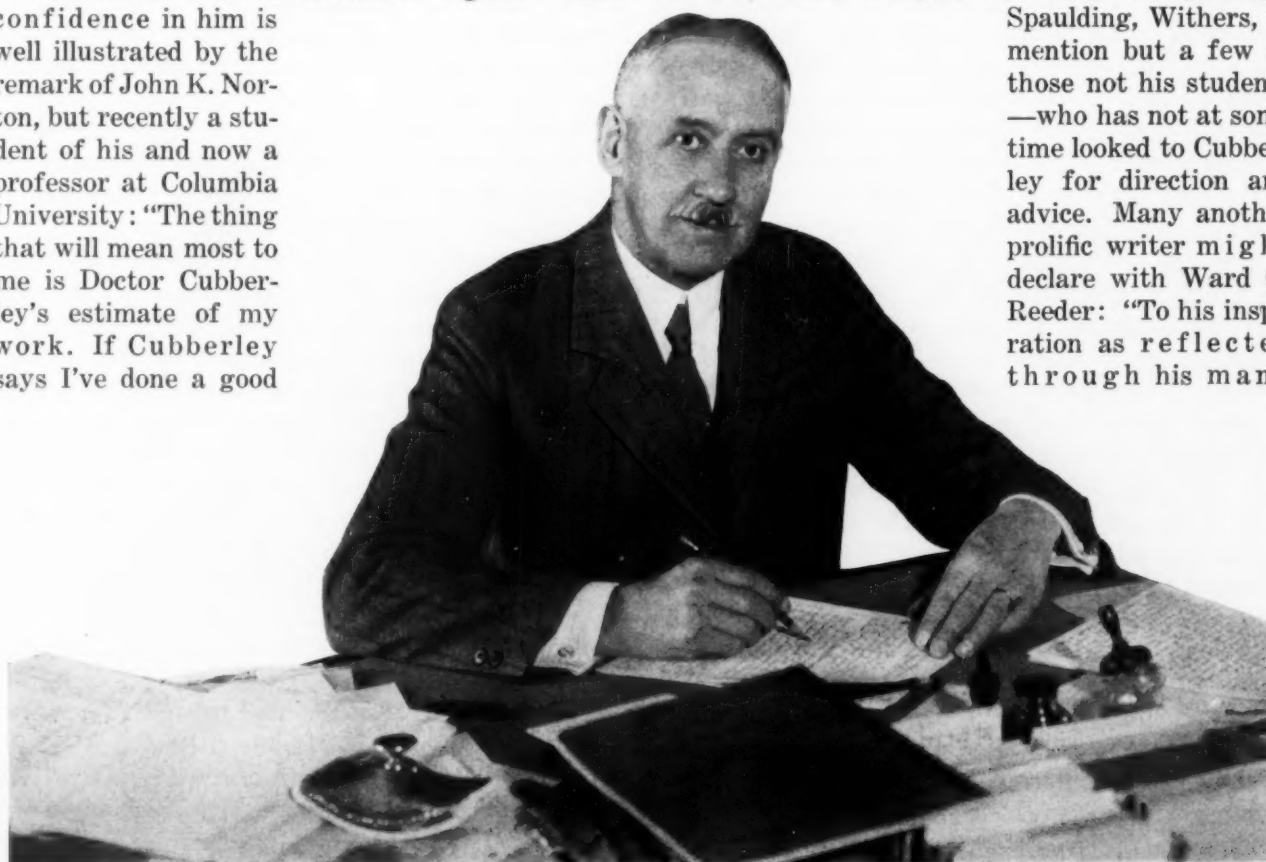
By FRANK PIERREPONT GRAVES, President, University of the State of New York

TO STATE that Ellwood P. Cubberley has been an outstanding figure in professional education for at least a generation is to be guilty of a truism. The fact is known by every one and many prominent educators have proclaimed it.

It is not strange that the students and associates who have come under his instruction and the spell of his personality should express their enthusiasm for him. They have been in constant touch with him and they know him in the life. They all realize how much he has done for them and they entertain for him the liveliest feelings of admiration and affectionate regard. Their confidence in him is well illustrated by the remark of John K. Norton, but recently a student of his and now a professor at Columbia University: "The thing that will mean most to me is Doctor Cubberley's estimate of my work. If Cubberley says I've done a good

job, I'll consider myself a success; but if the whole city 'whoops it up' for me and Cubberley says I haven't done what I should, I'll consider my work pretty much a failure."

This spontaneous outburst is typical of many an unconscious and unrecorded evaluation from his students. But that those who have seen Doctor Cubberley seldom or not at all and have had no opportunity to work under him, should regard him in such a rosy light and be so loud in his praise, is significant. Americans are inclined to be parochial in their outlook. Yet there is scarcely a leader in the field of education today—Russell, Judd, Strayer, Coffman, Jessup, Arps, Spaulding, Withers, to mention but a few of those not his students—who has not at some time looked to Cubberley for direction and advice. Many another prolific writer might declare with Ward G. Reeder: "To his inspiration as reflected through his many



scholarly treatises on school administration I owe much." Educators who have never studied with Cubberley or even heard him speak, feel thoroughly acquainted with him through his books, articles, reports and surveys, and consider themselves in a real sense to be students of his. They may be older or younger, far removed by distance or in affiliation, and even widely divergent in point of view or interpretation of facts, but all alike acknowledge his fruitful contributions to the development of their profession and their personal indebtedness to him.

An Educational Prophet

Such an appreciation of Cubberley's leadership is justified by the facts of his professional life. He has exerted a potent influence in pointing the way to educational progress in America during the first third of the twentieth century. No one man, of course, can single-handed promote a movement or win a cause, but the influence of Doctor Cubberley is unmistakable. His service at Stanford University for more than a generation has exactly paralleled the period of advancement in public education through which we have been passing, and during all these years he has exercised both pen and voice in offering constructive suggestions for its improvement and reorganization. Through lecture tours across the continent, notably in 1910-11, 1915-16 and 1923-24, and by teaching at many of our leading universities beside Stanford, such as Harvard, Columbia and Chicago, he has quietly spread the gospel of educational reform far and wide.

As a result of his membership upon legislative commissions or his advice to official bodies the statutes of numerous commonwealths and the interpretations of various state educational authorities bear the impress of his thought and expression. A large part of the educational law of California on the Pacific Coast and many of the commissioner's decisions in New York and other commonwealths on the Atlantic, sound remarkably like pages from a book of Cubberley's.

Even more effective than his work in the rôle of evangelist or statesman, however, has been his part as an educational prophet. His various writings evidence keen insight into the existing situation in education and an uncanny ability to forecast the lines of progress. With clear vision he has discerned the best tendencies in each field and described them as the trend of future development.

In the course of his career he has himself produced a score of leading works upon education and has edited close to a hundred other notable textbooks. As department editor for a well known cyclopedia of education he has been responsible

for scores of articles written either by his own hand or under his direction. And his more fugitive discussions and monographs on various phases of education must run well into the thousands. Yet through all this seemingly diverse mass of material he has evolved a unified and logical doctrine.

Of this unity in thought his development of the reform needed to correct the inequalities in rural education is perhaps the best illustration. He began his attack upon this most trying of problems in educational administration from the standpoint of securing adequate revenues to finance the schools. In his "School Funds and Their Apportionment," published in 1906, he first expressed his view that the schools must be considered a state system rather than merely a series of local entities, and that the burden of local costs must be assumed in part by the state on the basis of "effort and need." Six years later, in his "Improvement of Rural Education," he held that the state, in addition to providing more equitable support, should replace the small district with a county unit of administration, divorce the county superintendent from politics and broaden the conception of his duties.

A Worker for Rural School Reform

In this brief treatise he also noted our failure to recognize that the rural school is but part of rural life as a whole, and two years later he expanded this idea in an elaborate study of rural life and education through four periods of history. In the light of these relations he then discussed the development of equipment and instruction that should accompany the improved administrative organization. About the same time were issued his practical embodiment of these principles of state and county reorganization in the new constitution and school code for a hypothetical State of Osceola, and (in collaboration with Elliott) his source book of court decisions, laws and extracts from public documents, illustrating an effective state and county school administration so far as they had yet been developed.

A further treatise, organizing our experience with state school administration, was planned to accompany this source book, but did not appear until a dozen years later. This work detailed the steps to be taken by American education in its development as a state function and its rehabilitation of rural schools. Meanwhile Cubberley's ideas with reference to rural school reform were given their setting in "Public School Administration," his widely used text on that subject. Here he held once more that rural education can be reconstructed only by the organization of an

effective state and county administration, but he further showed that this is to be accomplished by applying the development that has taken place in urban systems to the state and county units.

Author of Many Books

Such has been the evolution of Cubberley's remarkable suggestions concerning the improvement of rural education. These well known facts have been given in detail to illustrate the consistent way in which he has carried the same thread through all his discussions of a subject, and has thereby unified and strengthened his thought. This review may also serve to reveal Cubberley's power as an educational evangelist and seer. All of the ideas developed by him along this line during a quarter of a century—equalization of support and opportunity, effort and need, rural education as a phase of rural life, the county unit, the divorcement of politics from educational administration, adaptation to the needs of the community and the individual, professional supervision, a strong and helpful organization of the state department, educational study and research—have now been accepted as almost axiomatic and are largely controlling our procedures today. The principles he has advocated are frankly based upon existing practice and many other leading educators have endorsed them, but it takes the vision of a prophet to select principles from a welter of experiments.

A similarly effective and artistic presentation can be found on any topic in educational administration treated by this fertile writer. Nor has his message been limited to this field. While his name has been widely associated with school administration, he has made a correspondingly rich and unified contribution to the literature of educational surveys and to the history of education. His report on the school system of Portland embodied and applied the principles later presented in his textbook and was the progenitor of the hundreds of surveys that have been pyramiding in the educational world ever since. The Salt Lake survey, which followed shortly, generated a series of repercussions that were heard in all parts of the country. The school officials who had supposed that the way to "get" a superintendent was through conducting a survey found themselves "hoist on their own petard." The report was promptly suppressed, but the country had learned a valuable lesson.

Likewise, if Cubberley had never made any other contribution, his treatment of the history of education would have established him as a conspicuous educational leader. Contrary to general opinion, he was the first American author

to produce works in this field from the modern point of view. Three years before Monroe published his standard textbook, Cubberley's syllabus of lectures, bibliographies and readings on the subject was being widely used. His "Changing Conceptions of Education," which first appeared seven years later, was probably the earliest treatment of the history of education from a philosophical point of view. It still gives us an illuminating interpretation of the inevitable change in the organization of American education from semiprivate and semireligious institutions to tax supported public schools, and points the way to increased social efficiency, special schools and centralization of management. It thus fits in well with his principles of administration and supplements the works he has produced on this subject. Similarly his other textbooks on the history of education in general have a functional basis.

As one would expect, with such a list of scholastic accomplishments and so wide an influence and reputation, Doctor Cubberley has been the recipient of many honors, degrees and awards, and has been offered many attractive and remunerative posts. He was the first to receive the Butler medal for conspicuous attainment in education, and there are few of the great Eastern universities that have not tried to place him on their staffs. A score of years ago the head of one of our leading graduate schools of education voluntarily offered to retire if Cubberley could be induced to take his place. But his head has never been turned by either success or invitations. He remains modest and unassuming, happy in his beautiful home and garden in Palo Alto, and devoted to his pupils, associates and friends. He is still the typical thinker and listener. He speaks with the quiet confidence of "the man who knows he knows," but he is always ready to learn and to tolerate the views of others.

Will Retire Next June

Probably nothing is more significant about Ellwood Cubberley than the fact that those who have studied with him at Stanford universally know him by the sobriquet of "Dad." His chief characteristic is boundless enthusiasm for his subject and a capacity to attract brilliant students into the field. For thirty-five years he has gripped young men to him and to educational progress with bonds of steel. Once won, they remain loyal to the cause he represents. Next June he will seek retirement from active life. How happy are we who are exponents of education in the fact that while he is laying aside the gown of professor and dean, we may still claim him as prophet and leader.

How the Contract Plan Provides for Individual Pupil Differences

This plan presents a challenge to the excellent pupils as well as to the slower pupils to work to capacity

By IRA C. DAVIS, University High School, School of Education, University of Wisconsin

IF CHANGES are to be made in our classroom procedures, existing conditions must be taken into consideration. Teachers are conducting classes largely by the recitation method. Questions and answers are given at a rapid rate. All pupils receive the same assignment, without much thought being given to organization of subject matter. There is little directed study. Only slight provision is made for detecting or overcoming the difficulties pupils encounter. Results are not checked carefully. The problem of individual differences is

unrecognized as far as any technique to solve it is concerned, and the incentive to do thorough accurate work is lacking.

These conditions do not, of course, refer to individual teachers, although I believe that they may be considered typical. It is not to be inferred that these conditions are necessarily bad. The thing we are interested in is improvement or change for the better. Conditions as they are exist because of some sort of evolutionary process in teaching, which some say is traditional. I doubt it. As the number

STEP I—ORGANIZATION OF THE CONTRACT BY THE TEACHER*

<i>Fair Contract (C)</i>	<i>Good Contract (B)</i>	<i>Excellent Contract (A)</i>
a. Basic material in the textbook and possibly some reference material needed for the understanding of the unit. b. This contract contains more material than is normally assigned to the class under the recitation plan. Pupils will do more work with this kind of an assignment. c. The directions for this contract are specific, especially at the beginning of the year. d. Parts of the fair contract may be made the basis for further study. e. A test is prepared for the fair contract. It is given to the pupil as soon as he completes it. When the pupil passes this test he can begin the good contract.	a. Enrichment: Additional material is given in reference books and other sources of information. This is not just extra work to keep the pupils busy. It is additional material that has value in the understanding and appreciation of the unit. b. Difficulty: More difficult material is reserved for the good contract. Relatively it should be as difficult for the good pupil as the fair contract is for the fair pupil. c. The directions need not be specific. d. Pupils may substitute a problem of their own if it is worth while. Originality is encouraged.	a. Still further enrichment through the study of some special problems. b. Still further difficulty on the same basis as the good contract. c. Additional work developing out of the fair or good contracts. Pupils may discover special problems they would like to study. d. Preparation of special reports. e. Directions for excellent contract need not be very specific. f. Pupils are urged to develop or find problems of their own. Originality is encouraged.

*All the materials needed for the unit are ready when the class begins work on it. A mastery test is prepared to include material in the three contracts. The contracts are organized on this basis: The good pupils are expected to complete the fair and good contracts in the same length of time it takes the fair pupil to complete the fair contract. The excellent pupil completes the fair, good and excellent contracts in the same time it takes the fair pupil to complete the fair contract.

STEP II—WORKING ON THE CONTRACT

<i>What the Teacher Does</i>	<i>What the Pupils Do</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Gets all material ready in advance. b. Sets a certain number of days in which the unit is to be completed (for example, five days). c. Acts as a guide for pupils having difficulty. Helps pupils with their difficulties. d. Checks the progress each pupil is making. Moves about the room examining the work done by the pupils. Checks their written work. e. May hold discussions with small groups. Occasionally it is necessary for the whole class to hold a discussion. f. May assist pupils with experiments (in science). May perform demonstrations. g. Keeps a record of the difficulties the pupils are having. This serves later as a basis for the discussion. h. Checks the completed fair contracts. Answers to the questions in the fair contract are usually written. i. Gives tests to pupils who have completed the fair contract. These are usually completion sentence tests and may be marked by the pupils. These tests are given to the pupils to prevent their rushing to the good contract without mastering the fair contract. j. Assists pupils working on the good and excellent contracts. (Answers to the questions in the good and excellent contracts are usually not written.) k. Plans the best methods of organizing the discussion. Assigns to pupils parts of the good and excellent contracts for discussion. Observes carefully the difficulties the pupils are having. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. May perform experiments (in science). b. Answer questions on the fair contract (usually written). c. Read reference material. d. Get assistance from the teacher. e. Hold a discussion with some members of the class. f. Correct mistakes made in answering the questions. g. Study the fair contract in preparation for the test. h. Home work (as much as necessary). i. Take the tests for the fair contract. When satisfactory marks are made on this test, pupils proceed to the good and excellent contracts. j. Solve the problems given in the good and excellent contracts. The answers to these problems are usually not written. k. Prepare reports on topics in the good and excellent contracts for the class discussion to follow later. l. Further reading of reference material for the solution of specific problems. m. Visit manufacturing plants or other places of interest. n. Prepare outlines or methods of organizing the material in the good and excellent contracts for class discussion.

of pupils per teacher has increased, the opportunity for giving individual attention has decreased. Teachers claim they cannot give much individual attention when they are teaching from four to six classes a day with an enrollment of from twenty to forty pupils per class. Doesn't the system we use make it impossible to give individual attention?

A recent study shows that of the teachers who had lost their positions, 47 per cent lost them because they could not maintain discipline. How many failed in this respect because they did not have any teaching technique is not known. We must remember that teachers have been held responsible for two things primarily—at least they think so. One is discipline, the other is the teaching of facts. The recitation method makes possible the accomplishment of these results with some degree of success,

though how well or how poorly no one knows. It all depends on the viewpoint or philosophy of education.

Admitting that the procedures in teaching are not as good as they might be, where is the greatest opportunity for improvement? I believe that the problem of providing for individual differences within a group or class needs solution first of all. This problem is not new. Good teachers know that there is a wide range in the abilities of the different members of a class. Recent tests show that these differences are much greater than teachers thought possible. How are we going to meet the problem in schools and classes as they exist? It should not be necessary to have a new form of administration, neither should it be necessary for teachers to devise an elaborate checking scheme to

record the progress of pupils. The important question is, What are the pupils doing in the classroom? The external machinery is important only insofar as it makes possible the proper organization and conduct of classes.

Suited for the Ordinary Class

What method will provide for individual differences within classes as they exist without any changes in administrative machinery? We have classes and we have individual differences within each group. We have the set-up for the experiment now. We may admit that there are opportunities for improvement in the organization of these classes. Why wait for these possible changes before we attempt to make changes in our technique? The changes may not come for a long time and we may discover they are not necessary. The Dalton plan, the Winnetka plan, the ability grouping plan and the Morrison unit plan to some extent are attempts to make provision for individual differences. They are protests against mass education. As teachers we should have no quarrel with them. We hope all of these experiments in education will be conducted long enough and scientifically

enough and without the dissemination of propaganda, to find out whether they are better than our present methods. We don't know now. The experiments have not been conducted long enough to prove what is claimed for these methods. These are special schools with a special type of administration. It is questionable whether experiments conducted in such situations could be carried out in our public schools.

Seventy-five per cent of the accredited high schools in Wisconsin have an enrollment of less than 200 pupils, and 47 per cent have less than 100 pupils. The ability grouping plan cannot be used in these schools, except, possibly, in some classes in the ninth grade. What plan of providing for individual differences will be practical and will be used by our teachers under the conditions in which they are teaching?

The contract plan is devised to provide for the individual differences that occur in an ordinary class. The different level plan or the differentiated assignment plan would be better names, although neither is completely descriptive of the plan. The contract plan provides for the excellent pupils as well as for the slower pupils. It provides for di-

STEP III—CLASS DISCUSSION

<i>The Teacher's Part</i>	<i>The Pupils' Part</i>
a. Determines what method of discussion is needed to overcome the difficulties pupils have encountered.	a. Present their difficulties in working the contract.
b. Reviews each part of the fair contract. Gives pupils an opportunity to correct the mistakes they have made (usually about one-half of the class has not completed the fair contract when the discussion begins).	b. Continue working on contracts as home work. They complete as much of the good and excellent contracts as possible.
c. Performs special demonstrations (in science) needed to overcome some difficulty.	c. Correct mistakes in their contracts as revealed by class discussion.
d. Plans discussion of some special problems that may have arisen.	d. Present reports of the problems solved in the good and excellent contracts. Usually some pupil is held responsible for presenting a problem in the good and excellent contracts for class discussion.
e. Organizes the material in the good and excellent contracts for discussion. The pupils who have completed the good and excellent contracts assist.	e. Answer questions as directed by the teacher. Class recitation.
f. Pupils may listen to and take part in the discussion of the good and excellent contracts although they have not worked them. This gives the pupils who have completed only the fair contract an opportunity to listen to the discussion of all parts of the contract.	f. Report of any original work prepared by some pupil.
g. Provides the necessary drill to learn the facts and principles needed to understand the contract.	g. Study the completed contract in preparation for the mastery test.
h. Plans and suggests methods of study for mastering the contract in preparation for the test.	h. Drill as suggested and directed by the teacher.
	i. Summarize the subject material in the different levels of the contract. This serves to answer the purposes of the contract.

STEP IV—TESTING AND RETEACHING*

<i>The Teacher's Part</i>	<i>The Pupils' Part</i>
<p>a. Prepares a comprehensive test covering the entire contract: (1) The test may contain questions of the completion sentence type, true-false, or multiple choice or a combination of some or all of them. (2) The test should also contain some essay type questions requiring organization of material for the answer. (3) The test should also contain some thought questions.</p> <p>b. The questions for the different levels of the contract are not separated. They need not be in the order given in the contract. All pupils are encouraged to answer as many questions as possible.</p> <p>c. Corrects test papers and makes a record of the mistakes made on each question.</p> <p>d. Plans the reteaching program for the contract on the mistakes made in the test. It may be necessary to cover only a few questions given in the test, or it may be necessary to reteach many parts of the contract.</p> <p>e. Parts of the test papers may be corrected by the pupils in the class. Essay and thought type questions should be marked by the teacher.</p> <p>f. Makes the grades for each pupil. To a large extent each pupil makes his own grade. It is determined by the quantity and quality of the work he has done on the contract.</p>	<p>a. Answer each question or as many questions as possible in the text.</p> <p>b. Answer questions that are based on the good and excellent contracts. It is not necessary that they complete all parts of the contract to answer the questions in the test.</p> <p>c. Check their answers carefully.</p> <p>d. Mark papers if they are asked to do it.</p> <p>e. Correct mistakes made in the test.</p> <p>f. Get answers for questions omitted.</p> <p>g. Get answers for questions they did not have time to answer.</p> <p>h. Plan a review of the contract on the basis of the number of mistakes made in the test.</p> <p>i. Further study and drill, if necessary.</p> <p>j. Further class discussion, if necessary.</p> <p>k. Take another test, if necessary.</p> <p>l. Some pupils do not pass the second test. Probably a pupil will learn more by being given another contract than he will by continuing the contract he has been working on.</p>

*This step may be omitted if the teacher is satisfied with the mastery shown by the pupils in the discussion.

rected study. The subject matter is organized on the basis of units or parts of units much longer than the daily assignment. It provides for discussion and drill. A technique is developed for the checking of results without making the teacher a recorder of details or merely a clerk. It presents a challenge to all the pupils to work to capacity. Pupils in the same class share their experiences. The contract plan, then, shifts the emphasis from one type of work to another. Less time is given to the formal recitation and more time to the mastery of subject matter.

The plan need not be used constantly. At the completion of a contract daily assignments may be given. Some divisions of subject matter do not lend themselves to a contract plan of organization. Then again it is often necessary to correlate the different units by discussion and further study. Many teachers do not use the contract plan at the beginning of the school year. They find it more advantageous to use the daily assignment plan for two or three weeks and much longer for some classes. The teacher has difficulty in assigning subject mat-

ter to the different levels unless she knows what progress the class is able to make.

A longer class period is advisable if the contract plan is used. A period of fifty to sixty minutes is more satisfactory than the forty to forty-five-minute period. All of the reference material and equipment should be kept in the room or rooms where the pupils work. Sets of books may be used more satisfactorily in this way. Individual copies of books may be kept in the library. It is necessary to have a variety of reference material and equipment if the contract plan is to accomplish its purposes.

How the Plan Functions

There are four steps in the contract plan. Step I is organization of the contract by the teacher; Step II, acquiring information needed for the understanding of the contract; Step III, discussion and drill, and Step IV, testing and reteaching.

It is difficult to determine accurately whether one method is superior to another. A great many factors enter into the testing of a method of teach-

ing. Several investigations have been conducted to determine if possible whether the contract method is superior to the daily assignment method. In most of these investigations no attempt was made to test what the superior groups accomplished. The tests were based on minimum essentials because the pupils working with the daily assignment plan did not study the wide range of material given in the contract plan. The tests should have been based on the maximum amount of material included in both methods.

The following conclusions in regard to the use of the contract plan may be made with some degree of accuracy:

1. The number of pupils getting high marks is increased and in some classes it is doubled.
2. The slower pupils (those normally not passing) do not seem to do any better. The method does demonstrate how little some of these pupils accomplish.
3. The number of pupils getting marks of fair and passing is decreased. Many pupils will raise their marks if they have a definite assignment and know what they are expected to do to win a certain grade.
4. The contract does present a challenge to pupils to work to capacity, provided the contract is properly organized.
5. The quantity of material covered is probably less, though the material is studied more intensively by the pupils.
6. The teacher will probably need to do more work if the plan is to be successful. After the contracts have been organized the teacher's work need not be increased.

Married Women Teachers and Their Status in 1,500 Cities

Married women are not employed as new teachers in 77 per cent of 1,500 American city school systems, says an announcement in the monthly *News Letter* of the women's bureau, Department of Labor. The announcement is based upon a study recently completed by the National Education Association.

Only 37 per cent of the cities permit single women teachers to continue teaching after marriage, while more than one-half of the remaining 63 per cent require the teachers to resign at once if they marry.

As to the legal aspects of the question, apparently no state has passed any legislation with respect to married women as teachers. In at least six states and the District of Columbia, decisions

on the question have been handed down by the courts, the chief state school official or the state board of education.

The most recent decision on the subject was handed down on Dec. 21, 1931, by the Maryland State Board of Education in response to an appeal from Wicomico County. The board ruled that a woman teacher in the public schools of Maryland cannot be dismissed because she marries.

It also stated that a clause in a teacher's contract reading, "If a female teacher marries in any school year she will be expected to resign at the close of the school year," is in conflict with the state tenure law, which provides no basis for discrimination on account of sex or marital status.

A False Economy

A recent interview by a representative of the *United States Daily* with William J. Cooper, United States commissioner of education, and E. M. Foster, chief of the division of statistics of the office of education, brought to light some interesting facts concerning the attempt of school systems to effect economies by refusing to replace dilapidated books:

The net sales of textbooks sold by forty-two leading publishers dropped from \$22,977,001 during the six months' period between July and December, 1930, to \$19,487,457 for the corresponding period in 1931. Sales from January to July, 1932, have not yet been tabulated, but if they show the same drop, the total decrease for the year will amount to about \$7,000,000.

Doctor Cooper said that school systems are storing up future trouble for themselves by refusing to replace dilapidated books when they should be replaced. Textbooks and similar supplies amount to but 3 per cent of the average school budget. Administrators who think they can introduce a saving by not purchasing as needs arise, but instead try to get along with ragged, torn and sloppy books, will ultimately face a serious replacement bill involving very large expenditures.

In commenting on the significance of the decline in sales, Mr. Foster said:

"An adequate and up-to-date set of textbooks should be a part of the equipment of every school, whether the books are owned by the school board or by the pupils. Books are part of the tools with which the pupils learn. To let this equipment depreciate either in quality, condition or amount is to postpone a cost to a future time which is justly chargeable to the current year. Every effort should be made to maintain a high standard of textbook equipment."

How to Get Expert Supervision in the Small School District

A perplexing problem for the superintendent in a small city is here considered and the advantages and disadvantages of a workable plan are pointed out

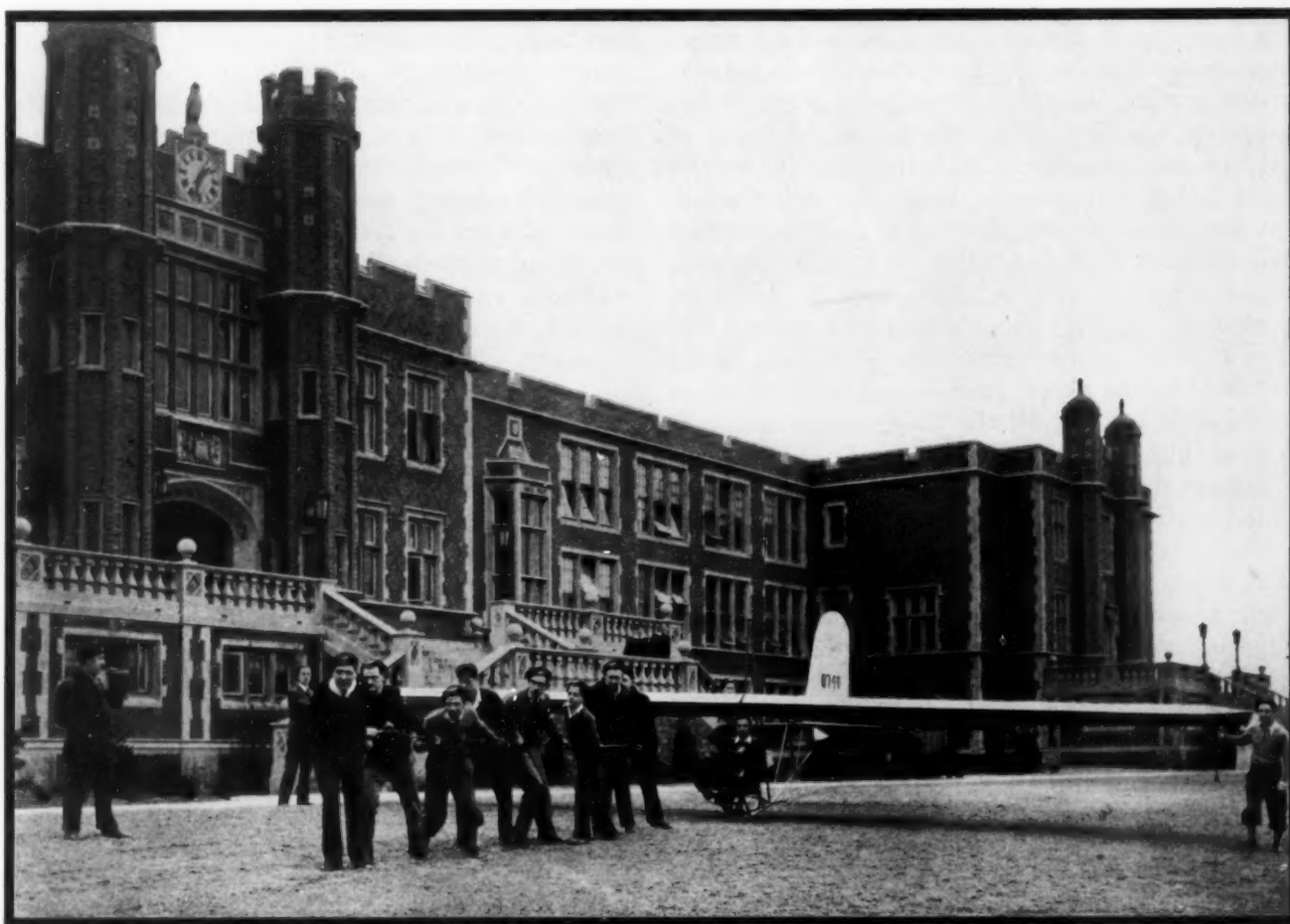
By C. L. LITTEL, Principal, Teaneck High School, Teaneck, N. J.

MANY school districts of 5,000 to 25,000 population have little supervision, yet adequate supervision may be developed without friction in a small city even with the community indifferent to supervision and with the board of education at the outset actually opposed to it.

In one school district where the industries were lumbering, coal mining, railroading and farming, the population was of native American stock, but of a radical turn of mind as was attested by the

fact that a large group of I. W. W. were stationed there. Only one small faction was in any way opposed to the school. Objectors can be found everywhere—there are always those who are opposed to taxes for anything. Nearly all the parents were wage earners, whose greatest desire was to secure an education for their children but whose financial ability was limited.

Eight years ago in this district, the school system was organized on such a basis that the superintendent was expected to do all the supervision



A view of Teaneck High School, Teaneck, N. J., showing class in aeronautics in action.

in the grades, while the high school and junior high school principals were completely occupied with administrative duties and teaching. The junior high school organization was in great disrepute. It was part of a six-year high school with few features of a real junior high school. Besides, it was the only attempt at such an organization in the entire state. Public pressure finally compelled the removal of the seventh and eighth grades to the various ward schools, which were in turn organized on a platoon basis. The supervision of music, along with all the vocational and special subjects, such as auto mechanics, manual training, sewing, cooking, art and physical education, had been discontinued by action of the board of education without consultation with the newly elected superintendent. All special subjects with the exception of manual training were reinstated at the suggestion of the superintendent-elect.

Difficulties That Are Encountered

The school system itself was like a collection of country schools arranged in convenient order in a city. Each teacher was a law unto himself. True, a teacher did not usually have more than two grades if below the high school and not more than three different subjects if in the high school, but once inside his own room he had no interference nor had he any assistance. Each teacher in the grades, including principals, taught every period of the day. This left the total burden of teacher encouragement and training in service upon the superintendent. While the superintendent during his senior year in the state university had been principal of the university training school, and while he had later been in charge of three different high schools that had made a feature of training teachers for rural schools, he did not feel that he alone could do justice to the work of supervision and all the other work necessary for the improvement of the school.

School districts are willing to provide buildings, equipment, playgrounds, theaters, gymnasiums, textbooks and teachers, but in many places it is difficult to secure the appointment of anyone for supervision. Nutt¹ says, "There are still many superintendents who do not believe supervision is necessary even in the elementary schools. Likewise, a large number of superintendents and a large number of high school principals do not believe that supervision is needed in the high school. The trend of the supervisory movement, however, is in the direction of providing supervision for both elementary and high schools. The

general consensus seems to be that supervision is needed just as much in the high schools as in the elementary schools."

If school men in charge of our present day systems are still undecided as to the need of supervision in the public schools, we cannot feel too harshly toward the layman or the board member if we find that both of them question the wisdom of paying for supervision.

Thus we encounter the following difficulties when we attempt to secure even one supervisor in the small city:

1. Many citizens feel that a superintendent should be capable of doing all the supervision and should have time to do so since he does not teach.

2. The addition of a supervisor is immediately known to all the people of the city and often becomes a political issue.

3. A good supervisor is usually a specialist and no school district of 18,000 offers more than one or two subjects that provide enough supervision to keep one person busy. Hence, part-time supervision often becomes necessary.

4. The additional cost of a supervisor is much greater for a city of 18,000 than it is for a city of 1,000,000 population, while the wealth per child is usually much less.

Yet there are real needs for a program of supervision. The turnover in cities of this size frequently amounts to 15 per cent of the teaching force in a single year. The salary schedule in the small school district being lower than in larger school districts it is difficult to secure teachers of adequate training and experience. Inadequately prepared teachers frequently cause pupils to fail by using methods that good supervision would eradicate, and failures are expensive in the child's outlook on life and in district tax money. All teachers will work better if encouraged and guided.

Supervision Could Not Be Neglected

Uhl² puts it this way: "First, many if not all teachers can be improved by intelligent supervision. Second, many interdepartmental problems require integration and coordination."

A board of education must see that enough money is available to pay teachers' salaries and purchase necessary supplies. The superintendent of schools must see that the budget is not overdrawn at the end of the year.

For the school district under discussion the state apportioned a certain amount of money, while the local school board was permitted to levy a tax of ten mills in addition. If more than

¹Nutt, Hubert Wilbur, *Current Problems in Supervision of Instruction*, Johnson Publishing Company, New York City, 1928, p. 65.

²Uhl, Willis L., *The Supervision of Secondary Subjects*, D. Appleton and Company, New York City, 1929, p. 1.



A close-up of an aeronautics class gathered around their glider.

this amount was needed it might be levied by a vote of the people up to twenty mills. In the district mentioned the money valuation per child was low. Hence it was necessary to vote eighteen mills to support the school. In 1923 this extra levy had carried by only nineteen with a record number of votes polled. It was imperative that an excellent account of the school funds be made in order to regain the confidence of the voters. Salaries of teachers were very low and two sections of the city were not provided with schools. Also the establishment of adult evening schools, kindergartens, a summer school and a junior college seemed worthy of consideration. However, supervision could not be neglected.

Building Teacher Morale

The faculty turnover was approximately one third in 1923, but because of the financial condition of the district it was necessary to find candidates who would be entitled only to the minimum salary of the schedule. Consequently, with rare exceptions the faculty members selected were graduates of the university or of a normal school and lacked any teaching experience except that gained in practice teaching. Practice teaching was required because, according to the salary schedule, that requirement did not cost the district any more. Although the lack of experience was a serious handicap, the fresh knowledge and enthusiasm of the young graduate partly made up for this deficiency.

The big problem in the mind of the superintendent was how he, unaided, was to supervise all departments and teachers.

As teacher morale is the first requisite for good work on the part of the faculty, a teachers' outing in one of the national parks was the first thing on the program in the fall. Nearly all the new teachers went and a great many of the old ones. So successful was this venture in building

up understanding and a spirit of friendly cooperation amongst the teachers, that the same plan was followed each fall for several years. As a result of this beginning there were no social distinctions between grade and high school teachers. It seemed that the whole-hearted support which the entire faculty gave to the general school program had its roots in this three-day outing at the beginning of the year.

In the regular work of the school little can be accomplished without a plan, so a specially designed plan pad was supplied to each teacher. Each pad was made up of three different colors of paper with two carbon sheets. The carbons made it possible for the teacher to make three copies without writing more than one. The original was retained, the first copy went to the principal and the second to the superintendent. The semester plans were due at the end of the second week. To make them out the teacher had to check over the course of study and the textbooks pretty thoroughly, thus becoming informed as to subject matter and becoming prepared to teach it.

Teachers Liked the System

The weekly plan sheet was divided into five spaces, one for each day of the week. While this permitted only a small amount of writing about each subject, it provided space for recording the teacher's plans and compelled definite preparation for each lesson. These reports were due each Friday. The copies sent to the superintendent's and principal's offices included a statement from the teacher regarding the general nature of the work that was to be undertaken on any given day. These copies were valuable for reference and were also useful in case a substitute teacher was necessary.

It should be understood that all possible freedom was permitted each teacher in making out his plans. He could consult the superintendent or

the principal, use the library or the course of study, but the plan was his own. Lesson planning was required on the same basis that reports were required, both as duties that accompany teaching. Teachers liked the system. Recently a teacher who taught in this city for several years, but who today teaches in a city where no plans are required, stated that she now rules her own paper and makes her plans each Thursday evening for the next week as she used to do when required to hand them in on Friday.

Department Heads Were Appointed

In order that the high school might have better supervision and a more unified program, several changes were made. The principal was relieved of teaching so that he could devote all of his time to supervision and administration. He was also given an able assistant to take charge of most of the office details. As the English department was in need of a thorough overhauling a teacher was appointed as head and was relieved of one period of teaching to allow her more time to rewrite the curriculum. Department heads were appointed to reorganize the mathematics, languages, sciences and histories. These department heads had frequent meetings with their teachers after school and the results were put in typed form by the commercial department. The high school principal visited the different classes, had individual conferences and an important teachers' meeting once each week. The results of these meetings were mimeographed the following morning and sent to each teacher.

The Penalty of No Supervision

As each grade school principal taught all day without any time to visit classrooms or to take counsel with teachers, parents or the superintendent, it was evident that some scheme was needed to obtain a unity of plan throughout the district and to keep all teachers working at maximum efficiency. The grade schools were from four to eight rooms in size. Each person in charge of a room had all he could do, so it was difficult to relieve the principal as had been done in the high school. Later one of the grade schools was enlarged to twelve rooms and fifteen teachers on a platoon basis. In this building the principal was permitted to give half of his time to supervision and administration. In another case the plan was tried of using a large room in one eight-grade school for a study hall, thus permitting the principal of the building to be assigned to one of the four-room buildings as a general supervisor for two days each week and forty minutes at a time. This was done without increase in cost to the

district, but was not highly satisfactory. The school left without a principal for even that short time lost more than the other school gained by the supervision.

When the board of education was apprised of the situation, it voted to arrange for supervision. Two special high school teachers, the art teacher and the physical education teacher, were released for elementary supervision. Each one was given one hour each day at first. They visited classrooms, taught demonstration lessons, held conferences for their particular subjects, outlined special work that would increase the interest and efficiency of the departments, put on exhibits for the public and all in all created so favorable an impression that it was not difficult to follow the same method in securing supervision for other departments.

Principals and Supervisors Met Weekly

As neither principals nor teachers were accustomed to art or physical education supervision, there was considerable skepticism among them as to the advisability of the plan. Both supervisors were just out of the university, and lacked some of the necessary cooperative experience. They were exceptionally efficient, however, and today both of them hold important positions in their chosen lines in large city high schools. At first the principals frankly said that they thought such a plan would be nothing less than meddling with their teachers. But after a year or two it was seen that assistance in planning and organizing, given by someone especially trained and interested, was helping everyone make the school better. No principal, if human, wants to interfere with the progress of children under his control. Besides, the principal had plenty of opportunity to advise and direct supervision.

Mental hygienists tell us that the way to get a person to forget a grievance is to get him to talk it out. With this in mind and to offer an opportunity for the presentation of constructive ideas by both principals and supervisors a meeting of these two groups was held each Wednesday immediately after school. The superintendent was in charge of these meetings.

The supervisors stayed until matters that were of interest to both groups had been discussed. During this time the supervisors were encouraged to present plans and to report achievements in order to get the reactions of the principals, favorable or unfavorable. The principal usually became inoculated with enthusiasm which he carried back to his teachers' meeting held the next morning.

There was considerable general and special

supervision to be done even after the art and physical education were provided for, so the second semester a good upper grade teacher was employed whose duty it was to relieve each principal from teaching one day a week. The principals were to supervise during this time, but not being accustomed to supervision their efforts were so fruitless and aimless that it seemed a waste of time to continue the plan.

The second year the board of education was willing that one of the high school teachers especially interested in library work should be assigned to handle all the textbooks and library books. With this idea in mind she attended a library school for the summer. The time allotted her at first amounted to two periods a day and this was later increased. It was her duty to account for all textbooks for both the high school and the grade schools, to catalogue the books in the libraries, to recommend new books for the libraries and to assist in the selection of textbooks for the entire system. She also attended principals' meetings.

Further Progress Made in Third Year

The second year it was possible to get a teacher of music for the high school. The third year this man was authorized to extend his influence to the grade schools for two periods a day. The fourth year a full-time music teacher was hired.

The third year one of the high school teachers who had special interest in penmanship was assigned the duty of supervising this subject. Her duties were to demonstrate penmanship teaching as frequently as possible for each teacher in the grade schools and, by changing devices, to create enthusiasm in the whole school. She also corrected a specimen of handwriting for each pupil at the end of the six weeks' period. These copies were kept in an individual folder for each pupil, so that the child's progress could be checked simply by looking in this folder. The schools were rated each six weeks and ranked according to their accomplishments and also according to their actual standing in the subject. Special exhibits were frequently placed in important store windows. The program was very successful.

The third year brought a demand for kindergarten work. A room was not available for all the kindergarten children that were eligible for admission, and as the state allowed only one-half regular grade school attendance apportionment in their cases, it was decided to charge enough tuition to pay the difference. A teacher of experience was found who was able not only to teach kindergarten but also to supervise primary grades. As had been expected there were only enough pupils

registered for one half-day so the kindergarten teacher had the other half-day for supervision. While the plan of having the kindergarten teacher act as primary supervisor had its merits in that she had the necessary time, her interest was mainly in the kindergarten work. The next year a primary teacher was hired for supervision, who taught a first grade in the morning and was released for supervisory work in the afternoon, the kindergarten teacher teaching in her place. Although it was difficult to change teachers in a primary grade in the middle of the day, the work of the pupils was satisfactory.

A Health Plan Was Adopted

The county Red Cross gave assistance in the school health service. Weighing scales had been bought for each school by the parent-teacher associations. The Red Cross provided a nurse for several weeks each year, whose duty it was to examine the children for defective teeth or eyes and for any other physical defect, and to recommend treatment for needy cases. The Elks, the Kiwanis Club and the Rotary Club all helped to finance pupils who needed treatment, while the hospitals were most generous with their services.

Health service for the teaching staff was provided by a contract with one of the hospitals, whereby for one dollar each month every ailment was given medical attention. Operations that would have cost several hundreds of dollars were performed for teachers under this contract.

Truancy Problem Eliminated

Another department that had taken much of the superintendent's time was truancy. A bus driver was truant officer. While his intentions were good, he could do no more than bring the pupil back to school. If there was a case in court it was necessary for the superintendent to attend to it. The board of education finally agreed that it would be wise to secure a man trained in the matter of adjusting difficulties between home and school. This teacher had his Master's Degree in social science and was much interested in adjustment work. He was called the adjustment officer, a name that meant much more than truant officer. He taught sociology and history for three periods and "ironed out" the differences between home and school the rest of the day. In less than a year's time the truancy problem dwindled to nothing and the superintendent had not been called into court at all.

The reader will note that all supervisors were not added at one time. The question will probably arise as to how the supervision was handled in the meantime. The system of plans for each

teacher has already been mentioned. The groups were made up according to both horizontal and vertical plans of supervision. Horizontal means the group organized by grades, as all the first grade teachers, while the vertical plan refers to all those teaching any one individual subject, such as music, art, penmanship or physical education.

Each member of a group was to prepare and put on a demonstration lesson sometime during the year. At each demonstration it was decided who was to demonstrate the next time, sometimes by lot, sometimes by suggestion of the teachers and sometimes by the appointment of the superintendent. Perhaps all teachers would not demonstrate during any one year, but no teacher knew for sure that he would not be called upon almost at any time. After the demonstration a discussion of the work was carried on with the superintendent as leader. The planning of the demonstration lesson was found to be one of the best possible spurs to good teaching and it was followed consistently even after the supervisors had taken charge.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Plan

The disadvantages of this plan of developing a supervisory staff were:

1. In the case of the primary supervisor, it might have been better to have had one teacher with the first grade all the time, although in some platoon schools the primary grades have several teachers during the course of the day.

2. A supervisor who taught part time had a tendency to get more interested in supervision than in the subjects that he had to teach, unless the teaching assigned was quite similar to the work that he supervised.

3. When young teachers were employed as supervisors, it took some time for them to find how to present their subjects to either teachers or pupils. Proper attitude on the part of both old and new teachers kept things moving smoothly until the new supervisor had found his bearings.

The advantages of developing supervision according to the plan mentioned are:

1. Because of its gradual and unostentatious development it secured supervisors with the least possible objection on the part of the public, the board of education or the principals.

2. Since a teacher's full time could not be occupied in a single line of supervision he was assigned work of similar nature in either grade or high school to complete the day's work. Thus the supervisor's time was fully occupied with things of interest to him.

3. The plan tended to distribute the respon-

sibility among a number of teachers and proved popular.

4. It proved to be a spur to many teachers in the system, keeping them out of a rut.

5. This plan was especially valuable in a school where the elementary principals taught all day and were engrossed with pressing administrative problems before and after school.

6. It made possible a sufficient release of the superintendent's time so that a summer school, a night school, a grade school building program and a junior college were successfully promoted.

How 390 Schools Solved Their Library Problems

Information regarding methods used to increase the service of the high school library to pupils and teachers resulted from the library study of the National Survey of Secondary Education. Replies were received from 390 high schools having outstanding library service. While school librarians use various methods for encouraging pupils to do recreational reading, they agree that nothing is as productive of results as personal contact and acquaintance with the pupils, according to a review of the survey which appeared in *School Life*.

Many schools have given pupils access to library books during the classroom period by setting up classroom libraries. A few schools allow books to remain in the classroom throughout the year, but in most cases the books are moved from room to room as they are needed. The survey reveals that some schools send pupils to the library to work individually or in groups during the class periods. Some high school librarians distribute a library news bulletin to the teachers. In a few schools, teachers work in the library one period each day.

High School Offerings Expand to Meet Pupils' Needs

Secondary education is undergoing constant experimentation and change and the expanding curricula reflect the efforts of the high schools to meet the needs of the larger number of pupils. The most outstanding example of expansion in curriculum, according to *School Review*, has occurred in the commercial and the industrial arts group. The field of English, where many new courses have appeared, such as journalism, dramatics, debate and speech, is another good example. Social science also is a field that has been greatly expanded, the variety of new courses being unusually large.

Schools for Negro Children—Past Practices and Present Hopes

By LEO M. FAVROT, Field Agent, General Education Board, Baton Rouge, La.

This department of rural education is conducted by Helen Heffernan, chief, division of rural education, state department of education for California, Sacramento.

SCHOOL provision for Negro children is so closely connected with changing attitudes on the part of two racial groups, which in seventeen states are educated in separate schools according to the law, and with influences, sometimes subtle and purposeful, sometimes apparent and inevitable, that some knowledge of these attitudes and influences is essential for understanding the situation.

A purely historical approach to the subject is unnecessary as the facts of Southern history are too well known to require review. A statistical approach is unsatisfactory. Statistics are dull unless used sparingly, averages are misleading, and mere comparisons of provisions for white and Negro children while they reveal startling differences, leave us with an array of facts that are unpleasant but unexplained. The approach selected is more psychological than historical or statistical, but reference to phases of the historical background and significant figures are given a place in this discussion.

There Is Ground for Encouragement

Workers in the field of public education during the past twenty years have often been forced to curb their impatience for better things in order to understand more fully the fundamental difficulties in the way of adequate school provisions for the Negro child. Only by understanding the inherent difficulties has it seemed possible to try to remove them. The need for this kind of service explains the selection of Southern white men of sympathy and understanding to head the divisions of Negro education in state departments of education for the past twenty years. For these positions men have been sought who held or who could win the confidence and respect of both racial groups, and who could interpret the viewpoint of the one to

the other. Occasion may not be found again to refer to this group of state agents in fifteen states, but it should be said here that, charged with the responsibility of directing Negro public education, these men have made significant contributions in formulating policies and in guiding movements. Fifteen or twenty years, however, are all too brief a period in which to expect radical changes in the situation.

The Far-Reaching Influence of Tradition

The South is governed by the white race, descendants for the most part of the people who lived there during slavery days. Generally speaking, migrants from other sections of the country have tended to accept the viewpoint of the Southerner on the race question. The power and the money and property, what there is of it, are largely in the hands of the white race. The standards of civilization are determined by this racial group. Traditionally, the South's ideals have not tended toward a real democracy, although in recent years in many sections a white rampant democracy has exalted the demagogic champion of white people's rights and has tended to break down the leadership of the aristocracy of the old South. The Negro's place in this social fabric has been and generally is still thought of as that of the tiller of the soil, the bearer of heavy burdens, the servant of a master.

It is difficult for one outside the South to realize the magnitude of the transition in thought from the concept of the Negro as property to the concept of the Negro as a citizen. The Emancipation Proclamation and constitutional amendments set up new and admirable ideals in democracy and human relationships toward which to strive, but they did not and could not immediately or even in a few years dislodge from the minds of the South's ruling class a concept that centuries of custom had

bred into them. The Civil War and the following reconstruction period left the South impoverished and confused. New and baffling problems faced her statesmen. Even if Southern leadership had been farseeing enough to realize the need for a system of education for the children of former slaves, which would be a substitute for the type of training given under the slavery régime, both the money and the equipment for providing it were lacking.

A Twentieth Century Idea

The public school as we know it today is an institution of comparatively recent growth in the South. Twenty years after the close of the Civil War, it was not quite respectable, even for children of parents in moderate circumstances, to go to a public school. It has been pointed out that Negro schools were then relatively better off than they are today in that the length of term and the amount of salary paid teachers were more nearly the same for white and Negro schools. Public schools, however, were relatively scarce, and few efforts were made to provide schooling for all children. The idea of educating all the children of all the people and using the public school as the agency for doing it is in the South largely the product of twentieth century thinking. It is hardly surprising then, with practically no influences at work to change them, that ideas and attitudes engendered under slavery persisted for so many years after abolition. History records a few lonely prophetic souls who sought to make themselves heard on this important subject, but, like John the Baptist, they were as voices crying in the wilderness.

The Attitude of the White People

Prior to the present century, those who gave thought to the problem of providing schools for Negro children were in the main the missionary church boards and special groups and individuals who brought down from the North teachers and money for this purpose. Negro churches in the South also attempted to support a few schools. The missionary schools and colleges trained many Negro leaders of the present generation and made a good job of it. The white South was inclined to regard this work with suspicion, and it has taken sixty years for it to be accepted. The South is now coming to realize and to appreciate the importance of the work of the mission schools and colleges.

While state agricultural and mechanical colleges existed prior to 1900, they were generally meagerly supported and wretchedly inadequate, as were the few public schools. However, under inspired leadership in several instances, these schools made genuine contributions. But there was no program

of Negro education in the minds of those who controlled public school funds, and many of these schools existed on sufferance rather than by design.

No single word or phrase would suffice to describe the attitudes of white people toward Negro education, which varies in kind and in degree of liberality in different parts of the South and which is rapidly undergoing change in many places. Four attitudes are generally recognized. There are first, those who are kindly and benevolent, well disposed toward the Negro and outspoken in his behalf but who too frequently think of him as being in a restricted static sphere, and with no broad outlook as to what he may become. Then there are those who oppose Negro education, sometimes through fear of economic rivalry, sometimes through a narrow conception of education which sees no opportunity for the educated Negro under the limitations of our present social order, sometimes for no reason at all. Again there are those who are utterly indifferent and who ignore the whole matter. Fortunately there is an increasing number of broad-minded, farseeing Southerners ready to welcome a constructive program of Negro education and willing to let the future take care of itself. Members of this group are eagerly sought out and their influence solicited by workers in this field.

A System Is Gradually Emerging

The attitude of Negroes themselves also varies. Thousands of capable and courageous members of the race have made great sacrifices to get an education and are laboring unselfishly to help their people. Other thousands who yearn for an education for their children have found the obstacles so nearly insurmountable that they have for the most part remained content with the crumbs that have fallen from the table of their white neighbors. These have had to be aroused from their apathy and made to want good schoolhouses, trained teachers and longer school terms. Unfortunately, there are also to be found some exploiters of ignorance in this racial group who try to hold down their own people. While hearty cooperation is the general rule, petty jealousies, suspicions and selfishness creep in to retard the work.

And thus out of this strange medley of a background, out of benevolence and good will held in check by suspicion and dread, out of aspiration and resolve mingled with timidity and sacrifice, out of indifference and opposition matched by tenacity of purpose and patience and long-suffering, out of the prayers and products of the mission schools, out of indecision and hesitancy and blind faith, there is gradually emerging a system of public education for Negroes in the South.

Influences that have been brought to bear to create more adequate school provision for Negro children have taken the general direction of allaying public suspicion and developing public sentiment in the white South. Edwin R. Embree, president, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Chicago, and author of "Brown America," refers to Booker T. Washington's Atlanta speech in these words: "Then at a dramatic period came his 'lightning flash across the brooding South.' Raising his hand with the fingers spread widely from the palm, he cried: 'In all things that are purely social we can be as separate as the fingers of the hand, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.'"

"This speech, as the climax of the preaching of Washington and the work of Tuskegee, radically changed Southern sentiment."

Booker T. Washington's Influence

While this "lightning flash" of a great man deserves to rank as a major influence in the transforming process, the whole transformation of Southern sentiment could hardly be said to have been achieved through the utterance of a single statement, admirable and statesmanlike as that statement was. Indeed, if influences are to be traced to their sources, Booker T. Washington himself always gave full credit for his own inspiring career to the influence of Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va., and Gen. Samuel Chapman Armstrong, its founder.

The influence of Hampton Institute and of Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Ala., on public education has been marked. The doctrine of industrial education has made a strong appeal to the white South. Historically the Negro had always been associated with work and an industrial education seemed logical. In addition to industrial training these institutions stood for the development of desirable traits of character. The mission schools stood for the same thing, but Washington knew how to advertise it. Again Washington pleaded with his people to stay in the South and develop the South, and his memorable story, "Let Down Your Bucket Where You Are," became a slogan. It soon became evident that the entire South would benefit from more productive farms, cleaner and more attractive homes and a healthier Negro, and there was a strong appeal in the idea.

How fortunate that Washington was a teacher instead of a preacher! He would have made a great preacher and his words would have been heard and remembered. But the public school for Negroes would have suffered. Washington exalted the school as an instrument in the building of a rural civilization and awoke the entire South to possibilities that had scarcely been thought of. His doctrine

paved the way for the work of the Jeanes visiting country teachers, who have worked for many years to try to improve the remote rural schools and the homes and lives of the people in these sections. Three hundred and forty counties in the South now employ such teachers with aid from the Jeanes Fund, and their influence has been great in stimulating an interest in Negro education and in helping to provide better schools in the rural South.

The Most Difficult Task

"Others have helped the larger schools," said Anna T. Jeanes, "if I could, I should like to help the small rural school." These words of the founder of the Jeanes Fund constitute the Jeanes commission. And how badly these small schools need help! More than half the Negro children in the South attend small rural schools. Out of approximately 50,000 teachers, 26,400 are employed in one-teacher and two-teacher schools.¹ Of the 15,358 one-teacher schools only 968, one in sixteen, are in schoolhouses provided by the Rosenwald Fund. Certainly seven-eighths of them are wretchedly housed. They may not be found in such large numbers in some of the 340 counties where the Jeanes teachers have worked for many years, but there are more than 400 additional counties without Jeanes teachers, where the Negro population is relatively large and the rural schools neglected.

Here in short-term schools are the large majority of the 18,130 Negro teachers, 38.7 per cent of the Negro teaching force, with less than complete high school training. Here the most difficult educational task faces the person least prepared to meet it. Here overcrowded conditions, irregular attendance, poor organization and poor teaching, lack of equipment and discomfort are seen at their worst. Here the children stagnate in the first grade and retardation begins. It is not surprising under these conditions to find 33 1/3 per cent of the Negro children in the first grade, while in the United States at large only 20 per cent of all the children enrolled in public schools are found in that grade.

Teachers Are Ambitious

Some of the states frankly make no effort to improve the situation until such time as the school district is willing to provide better buildings and abler teachers. This policy of waiting for a better day, however, means the neglect of the children now attending this type of school. When these schools occur in counties in which there are Jeanes agents, an effort is usually made to help the teacher and the community to make the best of the limited opportunities. Teachers of this type flock to the

¹McCristion, The South's Negro Teaching Force.

summer schools in large numbers. Last summer approximately one-half of the teachers in the one-teacher schools in the South enrolled in summer school. They did so at a great sacrifice, as it required a large portion of their meager salaries. The tragedy of the situation was that the teacher of the small country school found that the summer school did not offer courses that would help her to solve rural school problems.

The Effect of Rosenwald Aid

Perhaps no single agency working for Negro education in the rural South is better known than the Julius Rosenwald Fund and its school building program. The influence of this fund has brought about a visible transformation in the last fifteen years. When it began to offer aid there were few modern school buildings in the rural sections of the South. Classes were frequently taught in church buildings and in lodge halls erected by the Negroes. The few schoolhouses that existed were crude and uninviting, and many are that way today.

Perhaps the psychology of the appeal made by the Julius Rosenwald Fund can be explained by the natural human craving to get something for nothing. In order to satisfy this craving the Negroes and the white people in many communities were willing to band together to raise the supplemental sum on which Rosenwald aid was conditioned. As time went on and the building of Negro schoolhouses became an accepted fact, public school authorities gradually voted public funds for this purpose and cities, towns and school districts voted bond issues. Gradually also the highest standards of schoolhouse design and building construction became requisites in the building of a Rosenwald schoolhouse. Thus the whole Rosenwald building program has not only helped to provide about 5,400 schoolhouses for Negroes in which are housed more than one-third of the South's school teachers and rural school children, but it has contributed toward setting a high standard for all kinds of rural school buildings and even for buildings in our towns and cities.

Term "Training School" Has Psychologic Value

There has existed a notion that while an elementary education may be desirable for Negroes, a high school or college education is not necessary. The white South had said that in our civilization there was little opportunity for white collar jobs for Negroes. The opposition to the use of the term "high school" was felt to be so strong that when in 1912 Dr. J. H. Dillard first began to use the Slater Fund to stimulate the organization of a higher type of rural school the term "county training school" was used in preference to "high school" to designate

the particular type of institution established with this aid. The county training school, especially in its beginning, had to meet the requirements of a plan designed to change attitudes. Better rural teachers were needed. Why not help to train them in central schools in a county offering work a little in advance of the common rural school? That seemed the logical thing to do.

Not only did certain types of industrial training offer help to provide a practical education for the Negro child but this type of school made its appeal for larger support. The use of the term "training school" instead of "high school" had a psychologic value. As these schools have developed and become high schools in fact in many instances, it is, generally speaking, no longer necessary to designate them by any other name than high school. The growth of high schools for Negroes in our towns and cities during the past twenty years and the development of higher institutions of learning have brought about the general acceptance of the term "high school." A significant change that has occurred has been the transition from the high schools of the college preparatory type to the schools for life that they are now becoming.

How School Funds Are Distributed

Only during the past decade has the Negro high school been developed to any extent. Several of the larger cities have had Negro high schools in operation only since 1920. The accrediting of Negro high schools is comparatively new. The number of state accredited Negro four-year high schools increased from 161 in 1924-25 to 375 in 1929-30, a period of five years. The total high school enrollment increased from 39,276 to 112,246 in four years, or practically tripled in that period. There are now 12 Negro high school pupils for every thousand Negroes in fifteen of the Southern states, but the proportion varies from 4 per thousand in Mississippi to 25 per thousand in Missouri. The number of high school pupils in the United States per thousand persons is 39. According to Dr. Ambrose Caliver, representing Negro education in the United States Office of Education, there are still 223 counties in the South with a large Negro population and 48,000 Negro boys and girls of high school age without access to any high school.

School authorities have been charged with failure to distribute public school funds justly in the interest of all the children. City, county and district boards usually receive school funds from the state on a basis of the scholastic population, of school attendance or on some other basis. In most instances the law does not require that these funds be expended on the same basis. The result is that public funds allocated by virtue of the presence of

Negro children are frequently expended for the education of white children. Such a misuse of state funds has been defended on various grounds. Sometimes it is contended that most of the taxes are paid by the white people and that most of the money should be used for the education of white children. Sometimes the argument is advanced that Negro children do not take the proper advantage of a long school term and that money is wasted if the schools operate for as long a period as the white schools. Again it is said that it is uneconomical to offer the same salaries to Negro teachers as to white teachers because the standard of living of Negroes is lower and the wage scale is correspondingly lower.

The Effect of Public Opinion

The truth of the matter is that when public education evolved into a fixed policy in the South, the white children were given first consideration. Thus was developed the habit of setting up as high a standard as possible for the white schools and of neglecting the Negro schools. The school census enumerator never fails to count a Negro child when making up the census, but when it comes to distributing the money, somehow many of those counted are overlooked. This practice is generally disappointing and disconcerting to professional school leaders who urge an equal opportunity for every school child. Through the efforts of these school leaders, through the activities of the Southern Commission on Interracial Cooperation and its state branches and committees, through church groups and college groups that have become interested in the matter, and through Negro leaders, the Negro press and other agencies that have protested vigorously against existing conditions the conscience of Southern citizens is being aroused to this unjust discrimination.

In the gradual development of a real sense of responsibility for the education of Negro children, state school leaders are adopting different methods in an effort to overcome the handicap of the Negro school child. For example, equalization laws have been passed in practically all Southern states. Many of these laws provide for a more just distribution of state aid either at once or gradually over a period of years. The white school leader in the South, even though thoroughly converted to the general policy of the education of Negroes at every level, finds himself puzzled to know just how far public opinion will support him in his advocacy of a program. Many are willing to help but do not care for publicity about their Negro work. A county superintendent organized a full four-year high school for Negroes in his home town before even his board realized it. He

felt that if he had brought the matter into the open, the organization of the high school would have met with opposition. After it was found to be in operation, however, with no disastrous consequences, it was accepted as a matter of course. A high official in one of the states is not opposing the gradual development of Negro high schools within the state, but is opposed to the regional rating agency approving first-class Negro high schools and publishing a list of them. Why? Because in states where the superintendent is elected, some have been known to fail of reelection because of their activities in Negro education.

Many of our most liberal Southern educational leaders are inclined to avoid too frequent or too open a discussion of the problem of Negro education. When a few years ago the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in the South was asked to make provision for rating Negro schools and colleges, in the beginning there was little response from leading educators in this organization. One or two men stood out as earnest advocates of the plan and presented it year after year until the association finally undertook to carry it through. The arguments used by those opposed to undertaking this work seemed logical in a region where separate schools existed. The president of one of our larger universities made this statement: "When the white schools and colleges reached that stage of development where they found need of such an association they organized one. Why do not the Negro schools and colleges do the same?" The organization finally agreed to the plan only after it had come to realize that Negro college students were seriously handicapped through their failure to gain recognition for their college work in Northern colleges and graduate institutions. Also the association had to be convinced that a self-rating by a group without standard rating was almost equivalent to no rating at all.

It Makes the White Man Think

The work of the committee charged with the responsibility of rating these schools over the past eighteen months has met a hearty response from the association which now fully realizes its responsibility in this matter and is showing signs of enthusiasm in the work. What has come about represents a change of attitude in a group representing the South's leaders in higher education and is therefore of marked significance.

Other influences not referred to have likewise been at work and no doubt have accomplished much. For example, there is the Negro press. Few white people in the South read Negro papers, so they cannot be said to exert influence on white

groups. These papers have doubtless been responsible in a large measure for concerted efforts on the part of Negro leaders for better school facilities. When occasionally some glaring headline in a Negro paper concerning the school situation catches the eye of a white man, it is likely to make him angry, but it also makes him think. The Negro farmers' conferences, church conferences, Y. M. C. A. and college group discussions and educational meetings arouse interest in this question. I have limited my discussion particularly to those influences and methods with which in my experience of twenty years I have been most familiar and most concerned.

Gap Is Growing Smaller

A few comparative averages may not be amiss here. In six of the states the Negro teachers receive an average annual salary that is between 30 and 45 per cent of the annual salary received by white teachers; in six states the range is from 55 to 65 per cent and in three states from 74 to 94 per cent. The average number of pupils enrolled per teacher in Negro schools is from eleven to twenty-five greater than in white schools in ten of the states and less in only one, while the average length of term is from nine to fifty-nine days shorter in fifteen states. The situation is decidedly better in the border states than in those of the far South. However, the misleading nature of averages should be borne in mind. In many of the poorer sections of the South, such as the mountain regions, rural schools for white people are often quite as backward as the Negro schools. Again, in spite of existing conditions, Negro public education is not only advancing relatively as rapidly as white public education, but the gap between the two is gradually growing smaller. During the period from 1912 to 1926 the median expenditure for teachers' salaries per school child between six and fourteen years of age for fourteen Southern states increased 200 per cent for white schools and 250 per cent for Negro schools.

The neglect of the rural schools has already been referred to. The general tendency is to permit the schools to be so organized and pupils so distributed among teachers as to make first grade teachers or teachers of primary grades enroll several times as many pupils as any other teacher. This overcrowded condition appears in city schools as well. The overcrowding of the primary grades is partly remediable, therefore, even without an increase of school revenues or teachers, and on many occasions the attention of school supervisors and superintendents has been called to this situation.

Higher education for Negroes has been given

particular consideration in recent years. The state institutions have received far more liberal appropriations than formerly, both for enlarged and improved equipment and for maintenance. Special attention has been given to improved living conditions, the teaching of science, agriculture and industries and the training of teachers.

Financing Is a Problem for Colleges

College enrollment has steadily risen and has been increasing during the past three years at the average rate of 2,000 a year. There was one Negro college student to every 528 Negroes in 1929-30, as against one to 729 Negroes in 1926-27. The Negro colleges have experienced difficulty in finding adequate facilities to meet the needs of this constantly increasing enrollment.

To finance these colleges adequately in this time of depression has been a perplexing problem. Both state and private colleges have suffered. With public revenues curtailed, with private donors in the Northern states unable to make donations on the same scale as in former years, and with larger numbers of Negro church adherents in the ranks of the unemployed, all institutions have been hard hit. Many will be unable to continue in operation unless financial support is forthcoming. It is hoped, however, that the best of these institutions will survive.

A marked tendency in recent years has been the affiliations between institutions in the same town and in some instances the merging of institutions. Dillard University, New Orleans, is an illustration of the merging of two church colleges that have been operated there for many years and will continue in operation as separate institutions until the new plant has been completed.

Graduate Work Facilities Are Needed

A new and interesting situation has developed in Atlanta, Ga., where Atlanta University, once a four-year college in competition with four other colleges in that city, has gradually been transformed into a graduate school with Morehouse College for boys and Spelman College for girls in close affiliation with it. Two other institutions in the same city, Morris Brown University and Clark University, will it is hoped have the opportunity to use some of the privileges offered by Atlanta University, particularly the college library which is nearing completion on the campus. A plan for an exchange of teachers among the several institutions has recently been put into effect.

The need for graduate work in some of our Southern institutions for Negroes daily becomes more apparent. It is estimated that last summer more than six hundred Negro teachers represent-

ing Negro colleges and city school systems enrolled in graduate schools in the North. Hampton Institute has attempted a limited amount of graduate work in summer school, and Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn., and Atlanta University hope to be able to provide much work also. While it is of course desirable for teachers to continue to come North to receive the benefit of superior facilities offered, there should be opportunities in the South for those unable to go a great distance.

The South Is Awakening

It would have been possible to paint a more optimistic and brighter picture. The past few years have brought many changes for which all are grateful. The teaching corps in elementary schools, secondary schools and colleges is improving every year. The facilities for training teachers are far more adequate than they once were. There are literally thousands of school communities in cities, towns, villages and in the open country that point with pride to their achievements. Substantial and attractive school buildings are found in many sections of the South. Within, these buildings are comfortable and well equipped.

More than one thousand school libraries have been installed with aid from the Rosenwald Fund. Negro children are being transported in busses to more than one hundred and fifty schools. An increasing number of school officials every year are manifesting an interest in the Negro schools and working for their improvement. Negro leadership in many special fields is developing rapidly. The national government is showing particular interest in Negro education, and national survey committees directing studies in secondary education, the training of teachers and the financing of education are giving special consideration to its problems. The South is rapidly awakening to its sense of responsibility for Negro education and is more interested in and concerned about it than ever before.

The Future Holds Great Promise

It would be possible to describe in glowing terms many individual projects that show the trend of the times. If we use the actual achievements of the past fifteen or twenty years as a basis, it is safe to say that the future holds great promise, for notwithstanding the many unsolved problems that exist in regard to establishing relationships on a plane of fellow citizenship in a democracy, the two races in the South are bound together by a common love of the region and also, I believe, by a deep-seated regard for each other.¹

¹An address given at Teachers College, Columbia University, in the Rosenwald series of lectures on Negro education and race relations.

The Hysteria of Economy

Significant comments on the fallacy of the wave of economy that is sweeping the entire country made by Robert M. Hutchins, president, University of Chicago, are quoted in the *Michigan Education Journal*. President Hutchins says:

"Undoubtedly in the hysteria of inflation, the schools, like the colleges and universities, did some things that they can now do without. But the things that communities propose to do to them in the hysteria of economy far surpass the wildest aberrations of bull market days. We hear a great deal about frills. What are frills? Teachers' salaries appear to be frills in some cities. The health of school children is a frill in others. Since night schools are a frill in one community, we close them and throw 75,000 people into the streets. The plain fact is that the schools are under attack because it is easier to get money from them than it is to correct the fundamental iniquities and antiquities of local government.

"One reason why there is confusion in universities as to the function of the junior college, the senior college and the graduate school, is that no one of these groups has had this freedom to work out its own program. The tendency is always for the organization above to regard the organization below as merely preparatory to its own efforts. The organization above, therefore, will always seek to dominate the organization below in order to secure students who will fit readily into its machinery. But it must be clear that as long as the junior college is controlled by the senior college and the senior college by the graduate school, no one of them can make its full contribution to the advance of education in America. No educational institution can flourish unless it is free to determine its own ideals and its own methods of achieving them.

"It must follow that the public schools must have this freedom. The forces of experiment and progress latent in them can never be released if they are compelled to think chiefly of meeting the requirements imposed upon them by institutions of higher learning. If one thing is clear it is that the primary purpose of the high school is not to prepare students for the colleges and universities. By behaving as though it were, the colleges and universities repress the high schools, and to that extent weaken themselves by weakening the educational system to which they themselves belong. The great task of educational administration in America is to take the organization above off the neck of the organization below. Our slogan, therefore, must be cooperation, and not domination."

Basic Administrative Problems:

School Supplies as Used in One Elementary School

By JOHN GUY FOWLKES, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin

DISCUSSION often arises concerning standards for school supplies. The total amount of supplies needed; variations in the consumption of different kinds of supplies and the relative necessity for different kinds of supplies are some of the questions often mentioned. Before valid answers can be made it is necessary to ascertain present practice in the consumption of school supplies.

At the beginning of the second semester the principal of an elementary school in one of the larger communities of Wisconsin, with an average daily

attendance of about 220 pupils, agreed to gather data on the consumption of supplies in his school. At the beginning of the second semester, various forms were prepared and an accurate record was

TABLE III—PENMANSHIP PAPER*

Grade	A. D. A.	No. Sheets	No. Per Pupil in A. D. A.
First	31.7	2050	64.6
Second	29.2	1500	51.4
Third	24.1	1000	41.5
Fourth	17.2	750	43.6
Total		5300	51.8

*Formal penmanship taught only in Grades 1 to 4.

TABLE I—DRAWING PAPER USED IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Grade	A. D. A.	No. sheets used in classrooms, 9x12 and 12x18	No. sheets used per pupil in A. D. A.	No. sheets used in art class	No. sheets used per pupil in A. D. A.	Total all drawing	Total sheets used per pupil in A. D. A.
First	31.7	850	26.8	135	23.2	1585	50.
Second	29.2	1640	56.1	660	22.6	2300	78.7
Third	24.1	1000	41.5	575	23.8	1575	65.3
Fourth	17.2	50	2.9	160	9.3	210	12.2
Fifth	36.5	471	12.9	459	12.6	930	25.5
Sixth	29.6	50	1.7	438	14.8	488	16.5
Seventh ¹							
Eighth	42.4	481	11.3	402	9.5	883	20.8
Total	210.7	4542	21.5	3429	16.3	7971	37.8

¹The seventh and eighth grades were seated in the same room and are therefore grouped together.

TABLE II—DITTO PAPER USED BY AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL*

Grade	A. D. A.	No. Sheets	Per Pupil in A. D. A.
First	31.7	875	27.6
Second	29.2	381	13.
Third	24.1	50	2.
Fourth	17.2	70	4.
Fifth	36.5	693	19.
Sixth	29.6	370	12.5
Seventh			
Eighth	42.4	1854	43.7
Total	210.7	4293	20.3

*This paper was used for tests and outlines given to the pupils.

TABLE IV—WRITING PAPER

Grade	No. of sheets pencil paper	A. D. A.	No. sheets pencil paper per pupil in A. D. A.	No. sheets ink paper	No. sheets ink paper per pupil in A. D. A.
First	4200	31.7	132.5		
Second	5700	29.2	195.2		
Third	9300	24.1	385.9	1450	60.1
Fourth	3295	17.2	191.5		
Fifth	7300	36.5	200.	5850	150.2
Sixth	2750	29.6	92.9	1710	57.7
Seventh					
Eighth	1586	42.4	37.4	2776	65.4
Total	34,131	210.7	161.9	11,786	88.8

TABLE V—PAPER CONSUMED PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE (Exclusive of drawing paper.)

Grade	A. D. A.	Pencil	Ink	Penmanship	Ditto	Total	Per Pupil in A. D. A.
First	31.7	4200		2050	875	7125	224.7
Second	29.2	5700		1500	381	7581	259.6
Third	24.1	9300	1450	1000	50	11,800	489.6
Fourth	17.2	3295		750	70	4115	239.3
Fifth	36.5	7300	5850		693	13,843	379.3
Sixth	29.6	2750	1710		370	4830	163.2
Seventh							
Eighth	42.4	1586	2776		1854	6216	146.6
Total						55,510	263.4

TABLE VI—PENCILS, CRAYONS, ERASERS, CHALK AND INK

Grade	A. D. A.	No. pencils	No. pencils per pupil in A. D. A.	Boxes of crayons	Boxes of crayons per pupil in A. D. A.	No. of erasers per room	No. of erasers used per pupil in A. D. A.	Pieces of chalk	Per pupil in A. D. A.	Pints of ink per room	Fractional pints of ink per pupil in A. D. A.
First	31.7	135	4.2	57	1.8			72	2.3		
Second	29.2	110	3.7	54	1.8	19	.7	72	2.5		
Third	24.1	52	2.2	35	1.4	11	.5	100	4.1	1.5	.06
Fourth	17.2	60	3.5	19	1.1	10	.5	70	4.1	.5	.03
Fifth	36.5	134	3.7	40	1.1	29	.8	86	2.1	2.	.05
Sixth	29.6	59	2.	21	.7	9	.3	72	2.4	.5	.02
Seventh											
Eighth	42.4	202	4.7	30	.7	8	.2	100	2.3	4.5	.10
Total	210.7	752	3.6	256	1.2	86	.5	572	2.7	9.0	.06

kept of the consumption of drawing paper, ditto paper, penmanship paper, ink, chalk (these being supplied by the school), pencils, crayons, erasers, pencil paper and ink paper (these being supplied by the pupils).

Tables I to VI show the consumption of school supplies in this rather typical elementary school during the second semester of 1931-32. The data are presented as a basis for comparison with other schools which have made similar studies. Because of this no interpretations are given at this time.

Should Extracurricular Activities Be "Extra"?

It is generally conceded at present that learning to be permanently effective must partly if not entirely be a process of discovery by the pupil, including a maximum amount of activity. The wide variety of so-called extracurricular activities now maintained in both elementary and secondary schools may be interpreted as a distinct indictment against the traditional classroom recitation procedure.

The justification usually presented for extracurricular activities is that they offer rich training in the field of character development or social conditioning, and present the opportunity for the establishment of childhood hobbies or avocations that may be expanded or enjoyed in adult life. It seems clear that the activity program of either the elementary or secondary school should offer possibilities in the direction of the development of hobbies. However it seems to me that the fundamental function of so-called extracurricular activities should be one of definite instructional value closely connected with some regular academic unit of the school offering. If such is the case the term "extracurricular" is extremely unfortunate both as to

name and to connotation. If it is accepted that a school curriculum is the sum total offering by the school for children, then certainly not even by insinuation should a large portion of the school offering be designated as "extra."

It seems equally evident that if so-called extracurricular activities possess unique advantages participation in them should not be limited to the passing whims of children, but that minimum participation in extracurricular activities should be required. Such a proposal as has just been presented also demands the establishment of standards governing the maximum amount of participation in such activities that will be allowed, as well as the minimum amount of participation that will be required, and the establishment of student activities on some kind of a credit basis.

The granting of credit for activities may be accomplished either by the definite establishment of a minimum number of activity credits for graduation from the elementary or secondary school or by simply a record of activity participation. An arrangement similar to the one just suggested has already been made in many schools with respect to certain offerings. Many schools require participation in music, either in the form of singing, band or orchestra at some time during the school career. The laboratory work in science from one point of view may well be interpreted as an activity. All of the skilled operations including fine and applied arts are, in the last analysis, activities in which knowledge acquired in purely mental pursuits is utilized, and skills necessary for the full reflection of acquired knowledge are developed.

In the light of the tremendous pressure to which school budgets are being subjected, it seems that school administrators would do well to eliminate any basis for describing any school offering as "extra" and establish all activities as integral units of a school program.

Editorials

Blind Faith

A GROUP of intelligent citizens were discussing recently the errors made in the use of English by high school and college graduates. The feeling seemed to be that the use of the mother tongue by the products of our high schools and colleges presents a rather sorry spectacle.

"And these people about whom we are speaking have had all of this school program that we talk so much about," said one. It was clear that the thought here was that these schools should, at least by graduation time, produce citizens who use not "improved English" but "perfect" English. I say "perfect" English because it is obvious upon reflection that any person who makes one or two egregious errors in English habitually, or is even heard to do so once by the sensitive person, is put down as one who does not use "good" English. When a critic says that our school graduates do not use "good" English, he really means that they do not use "perfect" English, at least perfect from the point of view of the critic.

Is it reasonable to expect such wonderful results from the schools? How much improvement in the use of English can our schools make? If an individual comes from a home and a community environment in which poor English is the rule, how much of an improvement should the schools be expected to make in this individual? In the leading secondary schools of England it is perhaps true that the typical pupil comes from a home in which a serious error in English has not been made in ten generations, at least not by the older members of the family. It is obvious that the school in this situation does not have to make much of a change in the individual in his use of English. The question here really is, to put it in another way: How much responsibility should rest upon the schools and how much upon other social agencies for the kind of English the typical citizen uses?

In the assumption that a graduate of our schools should make no serious errors in the use of English, do we not see an exaggerated impression of the power of the schools? Do not we Americans have a tendency to expect our schools to perform miracles?

If this is true, may it not be that professional school people to a great extent are to blame for it? Have not we claimed too much for the schools?

Have not we been largely responsible for developing an attitude of overexpectation on the part of the layman toward the schools?

Here the expectation of the public with reference to English usage is presented merely as an illustration. The same inflated expectation exists in all fields dealt with by the schools.

In a time of depression, which puts all social institutions under severe criticism, the cause of the schools is made more difficult just to the extent that the people have been led to expect too much from them. It is always short-sighted leadership that exaggerates the virtues of its cause.

This editorial is not for the purpose of discounting the essential value of the schools. The schools are not obliged to accomplish everything in order to be a vital necessity in our civilization. Surely we need ever to develop a proper appreciation of the essential value of schools in our new civilization, but the question is whether this result could not better be obtained by careful, analytical statements of the place of the schools in our type of civilization rather than by making extravagant claims for them.

Is not the time opportune for the development of a statement of the functions of schools in our present civilization, a statement that will indicate what may not be, as well as what may be, expected of the schools in the various problems they are called upon to help solve, a statement that will be primarily from the lay public, although made, of course, in the light of whatever guidance the profession of education can give? Such a statement would undoubtedly tend to put the schools on the firmest possible foundation. Nothing is more destructive than the reaction that comes from a suddenly acquired feeling that faith has been in error.—A. L. T.

Why Boast?

LAUDATORY and almost sentimental eulogy by professionals and laymen alike respecting the "heroic sacrifice" of public school teachers in carrying on under drastic and often unnecessary salary cuts and even when salary payments have completely ceased appears to be somewhat beside the point. The teaching profession as a whole needs no sickly compliments of this nature. It is mature and able to stand without props.

Every individual who becomes a member of the teaching profession assumes a certain type of obligation and responsibility that is definitely the mark of a profession. One of these is the social responsibility for the educational welfare of the child. It is a duty to carry on in foul as well as fair

weather. If the teachers had deserted the local educational ships when the coal gave out or the wind died down, there might be justifiable cause for adverse comment. Recognition of responsibility and the continuing of instructional activity under adverse conditions represent no more than we may reasonably expect from the members of a profession. It was done during the war and is being done in this crisis. The doctor, the dentist and the minister have rendered similar service in this grave national emergency. It seems highly desirable at our professional gatherings throughout the year that we recognize definitely this distinct professional characteristic and refrain from sentimentalism.

Educational Pessimism and Disparagement

LOOKING through clippings of educational articles and editorials that have appeared during the past few months, one concludes that nobody in the country is satisfied with our work for the younger generation. Pessimism is rampant in respect to education and child welfare.

Both lay and professional critics condemn the schools, saying that educators do not know where they are going, that they have no rational objectives in view of which courses of study and methods of instruction are being determined. One writer declares that the only aim that superintendents of schools have had in mind for the last decade and a half is to see how expensive they could make their school systems so that they could extract more money from taxpayers for themselves and for members of their teaching staffs. He is vitriolic in his disparagement of present day educational work, and in violent terms he demands that at least half of what is now being done in the elementary and secondary schools should be lopped off so that we can again have school work that teaches children the essentials, and disciplines their minds by subjects that are not showy and faddish. This critic has sympathizers aplenty among laymen who are finding fault with the schools, and also among some of the professional brethren.

One can read in these articles and editorials the charge that our present economic and social disturbance is due in large part to the schools, because the young are not being prepared adequately for the needs of daily life. It is said that they are being turned out of the schools with highfalutin notions ill suited to the requirements of actual life. Teachers are not using the opportunities of the schools to train citizens; they are holding their

jobs so that they can make a comfortable living; we do not have in the teachers to-day the high ideals and self-sacrifice that characterized teachers of an earlier day in our country. So the complaints run.

The White House Conference has produced an enormous wave of pessimism concerning child welfare in our country. The conference presented statistics showing the number of handicapped children throughout the country at the present time. Writers are using these statistics in such a way as to convey the notion that children of to-day are much more unfortunate, much less intelligently taken care of, more generally neglected, than were the children of preceding generations.

It is a misfortune that the White House Conference did not go any further than merely to show statistically how many defective and delinquent children of all sorts there are in our country to-day. If the conference had made statistical comparisons between the situation to-day and the situation twenty-five years ago, we would have had reason to be greatly encouraged rather than to be utterly disheartened. We are to-day taking far better care of and giving far more intelligent attention to both normal and subnormal children of every kind than was done anywhere in the world twenty-five years ago. If the White House Conference had shown the proportion of ill-nourished children in our country now as compared with twenty-five years ago, the showing would have been entirely in favor of our present day service. If the conference had got up statistics on the proportion of children in the schools today who have visual or auditory or any other uncorrected sensory defects, as compared with the situation a quarter of a century ago, the results would be exceedingly gratifying. And so we could go through with every detail of the White House Conference statistics and we could certainly show that we have made tremendous and encouraging advances in every respect.

It may be doubted whether it does any good to disparage the progress that is being made in educational work and in promoting the welfare of children. If all the effort that has been put forth during the past two decades to give children an education that will fit them for the needs of daily life, giving special attention to handicapped children so that they can be made normal so far as science can tell us how this can be done, if all the strain and stress that we have voluntarily been undergoing to make improvements in teaching and in child welfare have accomplished nothing, then why should we keep on with the struggle? It may be suspected that many persons who have been doing yeoman service in child welfare are being

disheartened by the unceasing disparagement of what has been accomplished.

If the army of critics that has been let loose on the schools would show that we have been making commendable headway in every detail of our educational and child welfare program, it would be encouraging instead of disheartening to those who have been bearing the burden. Moreover, it is statistically fallacious and vicious to convey the impression that children in the schools today are physically and mentally handicapped in larger proportions than they were in earlier generations. This does not mean that there are no handicapped children who need attention, but it does mean that we are not neglecting them and that we are going as far as science and financial resources will permit in trying to make them normal and to prepare them for the needs of daily life.



A Lost Opportunity

DRASTIC reduction in local school financial support has brought the administrator squarely face to face with the problem of reducing personnel and revising rewards downward for those remaining in service. This process has gone on for the past two years and it may now be timely to appraise the reported practices and draw certain conclusions.

We constantly give lip service to the improvement of teaching service, both through increased training and through greater efficiency in service. If we are anxious to put our theories into practice, the present emergency offers an unusual opportunity for greatly improving the teaching profession. The urgent demands for contraction could easily have equalled the emotional factors that in ordinary times prevent serious objectivity in appraising teaching efficiency and the elimination of the weak and unfit. The necessity for decreasing the number of teachers in service makes it easy to classify them into three major groups—superior, good, and poor. Those falling in the third classification might be dropped, thus increasing both the general efficiency and the morale of those remaining on the staff.

In many a school system good teachers are discouraged from superior effort by the fact that under our blanket system of rewards, the weak and incompetent are rewarded equally with those who make conscientious effort. An attempt to eliminate on the basis of merit would undoubtedly affect favorably the efforts of the less efficient. Thus the present emergency might be made a blessing in disguise. The immediate objection raised is that many

teachers old in service might be included in such a classification. This is undoubtedly true but it is also possible to assume that certain emergency changes might be made in pension rules so that fractional pensions could be paid teachers in cases of this kind.

So far as we can determine from general reports and examination of field practice the reduction made in the teaching staff did not proceed this way save in a few outstanding cases. With a scarcity of jobs and the general popular attitude towards jobs the popular idea—that the schools are merely another source of jobs—prevailed. Few districts had in operation a sufficiently well developed program of public relations to crystallize popular opinion on the concept that the teacher must be appraised in terms of her contribution to the efficiency of instruction and the welfare of the child. The schools do not exist to provide jobs. As a result of popular pressure, which probably no emergency program of community education could suddenly change, cuts were made in terms of marital status, seniority and local affiliations. In more than one sense personnel reductions represent the elimination of the better trained and more capable teachers. The unfortunate results of this policy, dictated by emotional pressure, will be felt for a long time to come.

To those executives of broad vision who started years ago to experiment intelligently with appraisal of teaching service and to educate their communities with respect to the functional relationship of the teacher to the schools much praise is due. When the emergency arose they were apparently able to prevent high emotional pressure developing simply by being prepared. They used the emergency to eliminate the poorly trained and the incompetent from service and, through increased effort on the part of those remaining, were able to maintain the rewards for teaching on the 1929 economic base. These communities will in like manner reap the benefits of so wise a policy by increased effectiveness in instruction and through a heightening of morale by confirming a theory that efficient and intelligent service really does carry with it ultimate reward.

It is questionable whether the profession as a whole has made the most of its opportunity in this crisis. Whatever the practice, there is a vital lesson for the future. The ever growing necessity for a continuing program of community education regarding the purpose, value, condition and needs of the schools can no longer be overlooked or brushed aside impatiently as a theoretical assumption. The future of public education depends definitely on the degree of statesmanship and vision shown on the part of our executives.

Happy to Say—By WILLIAM McANDREW

HERE you go on another round of public service and in the most distressing era you ever knew.

NOBODY in your town has greater need of patience, steadiness and cheer.

THERE are two common protections against distress: a tough skin and philosophy.

THE trouble with the first is that it also prevents the joy a sensitive soul gets from beauty, art, religion, from the rewards of affection and friendship, and from doing one's very darndest.

BUT philosophy makes these satisfactions more authentic.

WHERE does your philosophy come from? Plato has calm; Epictetus is racier. Jesus, Aurelius, à Kempis, all of the gentle sort, have soothed many a troubled soul ere your time. Washington and Emerson give you dignity and courage.

BUT every man must form his own mind, sometimes in a crisis, more often by sitting down with himself and reasoning it out. His meditation enters into him and abides. In extremities he finds he has a philosophy of life. He is becoming a man of principle. He has a balance wheel.

COURAGE, brother, you too can meet disaster as if it were a trumpet call.

WHEN everything was running smooth enough, you were of less use than you are now.

YESTERDAY you could go through the motions of day before yesterday and not many people noticed.

NOW, your chambers of commerce, your real estate boards, your taxpayers' associations are saying you cost too much. Maybe you do.

CAN you afford to tax your community for Latin, algebra, geometry, dramatic coach and athletic entertainments?

ARRANGE your offerings in order of service to the community which is paying for them and lop off the least effective.

REVISE your instruction in those matters that can be shown to prepare a citizenry able to

understand the economics, government, law-making and politics of a cooperative democracy.

YOU have long wanted to do this, but found the public too indifferent to warrant your opposition to those who dislike to be disturbed. These tough times have pushed the opportunity into your hands.

AL SMITH says your high school course ought to make its main object the familiarizing of the coming citizen with the management of national affairs, commercial, financial, political.

BUT your high school course is a museum of costly antiquities relieved by numerous provisions for giving the boys and girls plenty of good times, at public cost.

MRS. ROOSEVELT says your girls should be studying how to perform the duties of citizens which have been placed upon them.

VERY well. How many of your girls are attending political meetings of all parties and asking their teachers to reconcile the contradictory statements everywhere uttered?

RICHARD WELLING says the original scheme put forward by advocates of public education was that all the teachers would be experts in government, law, justice, economics and politics.

HOW many such are teaching in your high school?

PRESIDENT WASHINGTON said that you should promote as of primary importance the making of an intelligent public opinion so as to give force to good government by the people.

ON WHAT public matter are your schools making the formation of an intelligent opinion a concern of primary importance—more vital than reading, writing, mathematics and language?

YOU can ask your high school teachers every time you meet one, "What are you teaching to enable the coming voters to make less of a mess of a self-governing republic than the present voters have done?"

SOME nervy lady, thus interrogated, can retort, "And what have you done?"

THAT will be good for you.

News of the Month

Education Week Will Stress Value of Schools

American Education Week, which represents a concerted effort on the part of teachers to increase public appreciation for the public schools, will be observed November 7 to 13. The affair is sponsored each year by the National Education Association, the United States Office of Education and the American Legion.

The general theme of the week's program this year is "The Schools and the Nation's Founders." A program has been devised with suggestions for each day's work. Each state and each locality, however, is expected to adapt the program to its particular needs and conditions.

Adult Attendance at Night Schools Is Increasing

States and cities show a gratifying response to the appeal of the Government to extend training to large numbers of adults and especially to the unemployed, according to L. R. Alderman, chief of the service division, U. S. Office of Education. Reports show increases in enrollments in night schools, vocational schools, and special classes, he said.

Massachusetts, California and Rhode Island, from which the latest reports have come, report encouraging enrollments. In Massachusetts, more than 82,700 persons attended evening schools, while more than 15,300 registered in Rhode Island. More than 300,000 are enrolled in California, and this number may reach the half-million mark within the year.

Massachusetts expended more than \$1,000,000 in 1931 on its evening schools. These schools were divided into evening elementary, evening high, Americanization and vocational evening schools.

Rhode Island reports 7,022 men and 8,248 women enrolled in evening classes for the term ended June, 1932. The aggregate attendance of Americanization classes was 49,776 for the year. The amount expended for the maintenance of the evening schools in the state was \$113,258.

Cities which have reported progress in attempting to solve the unemployment problem through

evening schools include Atlantic City, N. J., Atlanta, Ga., Boston, Buffalo, N. Y., Dearborn, Mich., Huntington, W. Va., Jacksonville, Fla., Minneapolis, New York City, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Salt Lake City, Utah, San Francisco, and Washington, D. C.

Child Development Program Is Started in California

The first countywide program in child development work in California, particularly adapted to farm children, will be projected in Santa Cruz County in a series of meetings, the first of which was held September 12.

The general purpose of the conferences, according to *School and Society*, is to plan for the coordination of all the work in the county pertaining to child development and parent education. Exhibits and demonstrations will be features of the meetings, at which the chairman of the farm home department, College of Agriculture, University of California, will preside.

Northville to Have New School Building

Ground has been broken on the new \$250,000 high school building at Northville, N. Y., which is to be completed early next year. The new building will house both the high school and the junior high school, accommodating approximately 600 pupils.

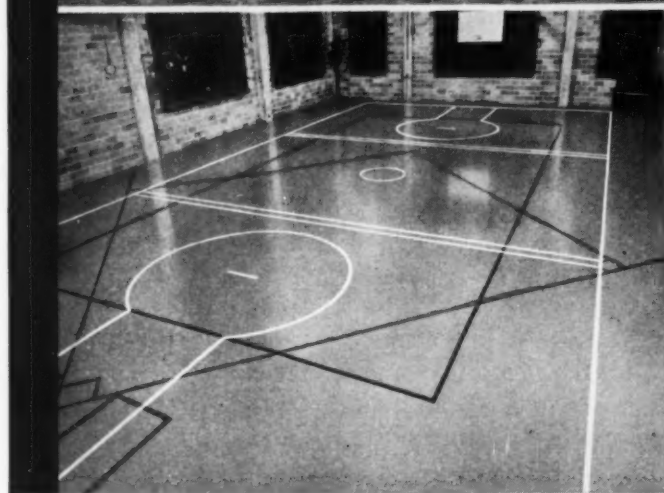
The building is to be a modern two-story brick, fireproof colonial type structure. There will be ample gymnasium and auditorium space and a full complement of locker rooms, classrooms and offices.

Boston to Build Big School

Construction was started September 6 on the new Dorchester Girls' High School building at Grove Hall, Boston. The building will cost approximately \$865,000 and will contain thirty-six rooms. It is to be completed in time for the opening of schools, September, 1933.



With the aid of Sealex Linoleum, Topeka's new \$1,750,000 high school demonstrates what can be done by the close collaboration of architect and flooring contractor. Thos. W. Williamson and Company, architects, and O. McCormick Rug Company, flooring contractors, both of Topeka, Kansas.



In Topeka's Senior High School

Topeka, Kansas (population about 65,000) has a \$1,750,000 high school which the largest cities in the country might readily envy. Several acres of Sealex Linoleum Floors were installed in this splendidly equipped building—in more than 100 rooms—in over half a mile of corridors. These modern school floors offer the highest degree of colorful beauty—assure greater quiet throughout the building—and cut down maintenance costs.

The rooms pictured above are excellent examples of Sealex Linoleum's ability to cope with any situation. In the Art Gallery, a Sealex Veltone Linoleum Floor is decorative—yet does not distract attention from the exhibit. In the English Room, the Sealex Floor in a cut-to-order tile design harmonizes with the old-world atmosphere.

The gymnasium floor illustrated is also Sealex Linoleum, with permanent, inlaid game markers of contrasting colored linoleum. Durable, resilient, splinter-proof—Sealex Linoleum stands out as the ideal gymnasium floor.

Write us for full information on Sealex Floors—and on our Bonded Floors expert installation service, in which Sealex materials are backed by Guaranty Bonds.

CONGOLEUM-NAIRN INC., KEARNY, NEW JERSEY

SEALEX
LINOLEUM FLOORS

News of the Month (Cont'd)

Book Week to Be Observed From November 13 to 19

"Books for Young America" is the theme for Book Week, which is to be observed this year from November 13 to 19. In the book parade will be histories, biographies and books on the arts, crafts and industries of the nation. The theme will be widely interpreted to include not only books about America, but the newer type of books of information which will help the pupils to gain an understanding of the rapidly changing world of today. The classics, too, will be included in Book Week exhibits and programs.

Both for elementary schools and high schools, the American emphasis provides an approach which can easily be linked with classroom work in literature, history, geography and art to make the week an integral part of the fall program.

N. E. A. Will Hold Convention in Chicago

The National Education Association will hold its next annual convention in Chicago, July 1 to 7, 1933. It will be the seventy-first annual meeting of the organization. The Stevens Hotel, in which the exhibits will be located, will serve as convention headquarters. An added attraction to the forthcoming meeting is the fact that the international exposition, A Century of Progress, will be under way during the period of the convention.

NBC Opens Music Appreciation Broadcasts

The National Broadcasting Company, Inc., New York City, opened the fifth season of its Music Appreciation Hour program broadcasts to the schools and colleges of America on October 14. There will be a total of twenty-five broadcasts, the final concert to be held on April 28, 1933.

Walter Damrosch, musical counsel for the broadcasting company, and the NBC Symphony Orchestra will present the programs. The programs this year will be similar to those given in previous years. Four distinct series of concerts will be offered, graded to constitute a four-year course in appreciation of music.

The purpose of these concerts is to supplement rather than supplant local instruction in the appreciation of music, by presenting through the medium of broadcasting a type of program not otherwise available in the average school.

Education Must Not Be Neglected, Secretary Wilbur Holds

This is no time for "back-tracking in education" in spite of the "temporary economic difficulties," Ray Lyman Wilbur, Secretary of the Interior, declared in a statement made public recently by the U. S. Office of Education, in which a school enrollment of 31,000,000 is predicted for the nation as a whole this year.

Public elementary and high school attendance will approximate more than 25,000,000 while the university and college enrollments are expected to exceed 1,225,000.

"What we do in our public schools with our children determines what our nation shall be," Doctor Wilbur said. "In spite of temporary economic difficulties, it is no time for back-tracking in education. It is more vital for us to have better education and more of it to protect us from our own ignorance and follies."

Thirteen New Schools Opened in New York City

Thirteen new school buildings and additions, including three high schools and a continuation school, were opened in New York City with the beginning of the September semester, according to a statement in *School and Society* made by Walter C. Martin, superintendent of school buildings.

The thirteen new schools will provide more than 20,000 new seats and will cost more than \$12,000,000. Several other new buildings are also under construction, but will not be completed until later. These bring the total number of school building projects up to twenty-seven, providing almost 33,000 additional seats, and costing more than \$16,500,000.

Of these twenty-seven projects, only one is in Manhattan. Five of the projects are in the Bronx, six in Brooklyn, twelve in Queens and three in Richmond.

PAINTABILITY....

The acid test of Permanence

Acousti-Celotex ceilings can be painted repeatedly with any kind of paint without loss of sound absorbing efficiency—**BECAUSE:** the deep perforations cause sound to be absorbed *within the material* instead of at the surface.

It is this property (covered by exclusive Acousti-Celotex patents) that justifies the claim, for this material, of **PERMANENCE**.

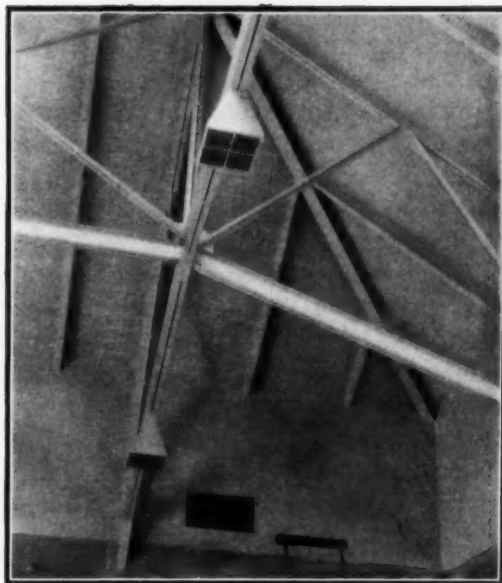
One of the practical advantages of Acousti-Celotex Sound Absorbing Tiles is the fact that they can be applied directly to the existing ceiling without alterations, without changing architects plans, without interrupting the school term. It is an easy job, quickly done.

The high sound absorbing efficiency of Acousti-Celotex, predetermined and fixed by its patented perforations, produces quiet, corrects bad acoustics and provides the conditions necessary for the best work of both pupil and teacher.

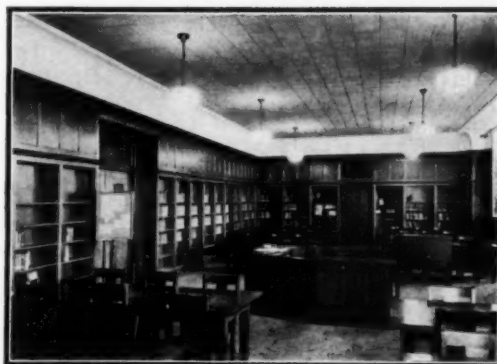
Acousti-Celotex is permanent, does not deteriorate, requires no repairs, and takes repeated painting without impairment of its sound absorbing effectiveness. For full information write Acousti-Celotex Service Bureau, 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

Acoustical Products for Every Purpose

Acousti-Celotex Cane Fibre Tile
Acousti-Celotex Mineral Fibre Tile
Kalite Sound Absorbing Plaster



• **DETAIL OF THE CEILING** of the Gymnasium, Indoor Athletic Building, Harvard University, showing application of Acousti-Celotex to absorb the sounds arising in this otherwise noisy department. Architects: Coolidge, Shepley, Bulfinch & Abbott, Boston, Mass.



• **IT'S NOT TOO LATE** to quiet noisy schoolrooms—you can apply Acousti-Celotex **NOW**—no need to wait for vacation periods for this simple improvement—no occasion to wait for new buildings. Concentration was made easier for students in the library of Oliver Hazard Perry Junior High School, Providence, R. I.—teachers were relieved from the irritating handicap of noise—by the use of Acousti-Celotex. Architects: Architectural Dept., City of Providence.

PAINTABLE PERMANENT
ACOUSTI-CELOTEX
TRADE MARK REGISTERED U. S. PATENT OFFICE

News of the Month (Cont'd)

Denver Teachers Volunteer Salary Cut

Teachers in the Denver Public Schools have voluntarily waived 10 per cent of their salaries for the budget year beginning December 1, 1932. Increments provided by the salary schedule will be granted before the cut is made. Other employees have also accepted a 10 per cent cut.

Savings effected by these salary adjustments will amount to approximately \$450,000. Additional savings of from \$200,000 to \$250,000 must be made in order to come within the funds available for the new budget year.

A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent, Denver Public Schools, says that the necessary savings above those effected by salary reductions will be made by increase in the teacher load; reorganization of the school staff; carefully planned economies in capital outlay and in the purchase of supplies, equipment, and textbooks, and in the expense of maintenance and operation of the school plant.

Head of P. T. A. Would Limit School Power

The parent has some right in molding his or her child and the home plays, after all, the most fundamental rôle in educating children, in the opinion of Mrs. Hugh Bradford, Sacramento, Calif., president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Mrs. Bradford presided at a recent meeting of the executive committee of her organization, held in Chicago, where a tentative program for the forthcoming year for the parent-teacher associations of the country, including 1,500,000 members, was mapped out preparatory to a three-day meeting of the national board of 100 members.

In an interview following the executive meeting, Mrs. Bradford spoke of the objects of her association and of her own views on education and children.

When schools begin to take over all the functions of the home, teaching children morals and manners as well as spelling and arithmetic, they are assuming too much responsibility, Mrs. Bradford believes.

"It is the education of the parents that our organization will concentrate on this year," she said.

"We are having three new committees, on radio education, character education and rural service. We hope to promote radio programs by which parents may learn new methods in education.

"In rural communities and in cities, parents are afraid to be called old-fashioned parents. In our 'character education' we hope to show parents how they should conduct themselves to be good examples. If they are not honest with their children they cannot expect honesty in return."

U. S. Elementary School Cost Rise Is Smaller Than England's

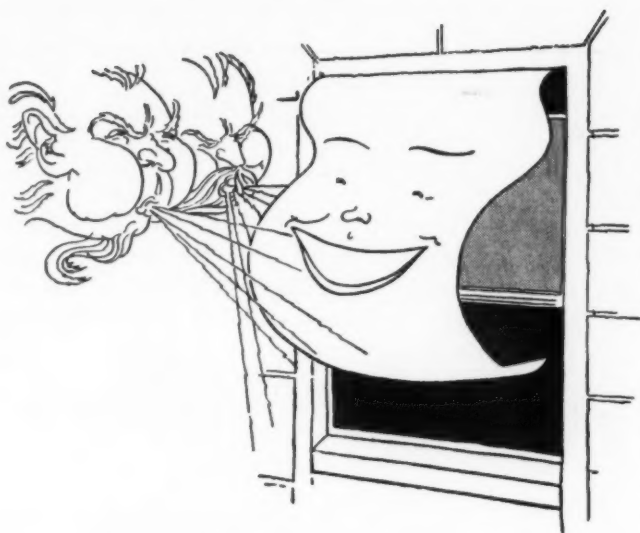
It appears that elementary education costs are increasing more rapidly and secondary education expenses more slowly in England than in the United States, according to the U. S. Office of Education.

The average cost for current expense and interest on borrowed money per pupil in average daily attendance in all public elementary and secondary schools in the United States during the school year 1929-30 was \$91.05. The averages for elementary and four-year high schools were, respectively, \$75.78 and \$160.93. During the school year 1913-14 the average for all schools was \$32.60. Assuming that the same ratio existed in 1914 as in 1930, the average per pupil in elementary schools was \$30.12, and for four-year high schools \$63.96, an increase of 151.6 per cent for both elementary and secondary education.

The cost of elementary education in England increased from \$22.53 to \$63.57 during the period 1914 to 1931, a percentage increase of 182.2. Secondary education in England increased \$72.02 from 1912 to 1930. It is estimated by the U. S. Office of Education that the increase in the United States is \$100.20 for the same period.

Model School Opened in Buffalo

The Sisters of St. Francis of Penance and Christian Charity have opened a model school in the building formerly occupied by the Academy of the Sacred Heart, Buffalo, N. Y., according to the *Catholic School Journal*. The new institution will be a practice and demonstration school in which children of the first and second grades will be enrolled.



Window Shades that
LAUGH AT WEATHER
mean dollars in your pocket!

BOTH Lux Laboratories and Delineator Institute have tested Tontine window shades. "Excellent washability," says Lux, after scrubbing them twenty times. "They stand scrubbing," agrees Delineator.

Instead of buying new shades every few years, wash your Tontine shades. You can scrub them five times, ten times, twenty times. All the spots and soil of rain, wind, and dirt are erased. They will look spick and span. Tontine shades refuse to fray, crack, tear, or pinhole. You also insure double satisfaction if you mount them on guaranteed Tontine Rollers.

For samples of Tontine cloth, just sign the coupon. For immediate action, look for the authorized Tontine dealer in the Classified Business Directory of your telephone book.

AFTER SCRUBBING

Let your Tontine shades hang this way until thoroughly dried. Then they will be doubly ready to add new freshness and charm to your building.



TONTINE

(PRONOUNCED TON-TEEN)

THE WASHABLE WINDOW SHADE

E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., Inc., 100 Du Pont Ave., Newburgh, N. Y. N-5-2
 Kindly send me a selection of Tontine washable window shade samples. Canadian subscribers should address: Canadian Industries Limited, Fabrikoid Division, New Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Name _____
 Address _____

L. SONNEBORN SONS, Inc.
 GUARANTEED PRODUCTS

Make Your Concrete Floors
AS HARD AS
GRANITE

That is the one best way to stop
the DUST Nuisance

LAPIDOLITH is a liquid chemical treatment that penetrates deeply into porous cement and binds the loose particles into a close grained mass, granite hard.

It goes on like water and hardens overnight. It then becomes a very practical form of floor insurance which you can have at trifling cost.

There are probably many floors in your own community that were treated with Lapidolith years ago. After much abuse they are still smooth, hard and dustproof. See them and you will be entirely convinced.

The application of Lapidolith is quite simple and your own janitor can do the job very satisfactorily. If, however, you prefer to use the trained Sonneborn service organization you can do so at very reasonable cost.

Let us send you the Lapidolith Book. It will give you complete information.

● Note these famous Sonneborn savers of school buildings and maintenance expense. The coupon below will bring you detailed information.

LAPIDOLITH

—A chemical liquid hardener for preserving and dustproofing concrete floors.

LIGNOPHOL

—For finishing, preserving and wearproofing wood floors.

HYDROCID COLORLESS

—For waterproofing exterior of exposed walls.

CEMENT FILLER AND DUST PROOFER

—A decorative and dustproofing treatment.

CEMCOAT EXTERIOR AND INTERIOR PAINTS

—Tough, durable floor paint that produces an attractive high-gloss finish. Various colors.

MAG-I-SAN CLEANING POWDER

—For economy and thoroughness in cleaning floors, walls, general utility.

AMALIE WAX (Liquid and Paste)

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Please send me, without obligation, demonstration samples and literature on: Lapidolith — ; Lignophol — ; Cement Filler and Dustproofing — ; Cemcoat Exterior and Interior Paints — ; Hydrocid Colorless — ; Mag-I-San — ; Amalie Wax — ; (Check products that interest you.)	
Name _____	
Address _____	
Company _____	
Position _____	

In the Educational Field

M. L. JACOBSON, director of rural schools, Minnesota Department of Education, died recently at his home in St. Paul, following a heart attack. He was well known throughout Minnesota as an educator, having served as superintendent of schools in a number of counties in the state.

D. A. GANZEL, formerly superintendent of schools, Tilden, Neb., has been appointed head of the public school system, Wilber, Neb.

EMMA BARBER TURNBACH, formerly headmistress, Dongan Hall, Staten Island, N. Y., has accepted the position of headmistress at Fermata School, Aiken, S. C. Dongan Hall did not open this fall, due to financial difficulties.

D. B. CLARK, superintendent of schools, Kenton, Ohio, for the past thirteen years, resigned on October 1 to accept a position as business manager, Marsh Foundation School for Boys, Van Wert, Ohio. He was superintendent of schools at Van Wert prior to going to Kenton.

GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS, head, department of parent education, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, has been appointed editor-in-chief, *Junior Home for Parent and Child*, succeeding the late Professor M. V. O'Shea.

F. D. RING, superintendent of schools, Dresden, Ohio, has resigned to become superintendent of schools, Muskingum County, Ohio.

JOHN YALE CROUTER, former assistant principal of the Lexington Avenue School for the Deaf, New York City, has been appointed head of the Rhode Island School for the Deaf, Providence, R. I. He succeeds ANNA C. HURD who retired recently after twenty-six years' service at the school, fourteen of which were spent as principal.

OLIVE S. PARSONS, for many years in charge of Rogers Hall, Lowell, Mass., has retired. KATHERINE W. MCGAY, formerly dean of the school, has been appointed MISS PARSONS' successor.

J. H. ROHRBAUGH was recently appointed superintendent of schools, Davis, West Virginia. For the past three years he has been supervisor of district schools, Clarksburg, West Virginia.

JESS STEWART has been appointed superintendent of schools, Greenup County, Ohio, succeeding ROBERT J. NICKELLS, head of the county's schools for the past seven years.

C. J. SETTLES, superintendent, Gooding State School for the Deaf and Blind, Boise, Idaho, resigned recently to become head of a similar institution in Florida. He had been head of the Gooding school for ten years.

E. P. REEVE has resigned as superintendent of schools, Wyoming, Ohio, to accept the principalship of the Hyde Park-Kilgour schools, Cincinnati.

DAVID A. TIRRELL, formerly of Kent School, Kent, Conn., has been appointed headmaster, Evans School, Tucson, Ariz. RODMAN GRISCOM, recently headmaster of Evans School, remains president of the corporation.

NATHAN T. VEATCH, who for many years was superintendent of schools, Atchison, Kan., died recently. At the time of his death MR. VEATCH was living with his son in Kansas City, Kan.

N. E. HELDERMAN is now superintendent of schools, Washington, Ind., succeeding J. H. SHIPP, resigned. MR. HELDERMAN has been associated with school work in Indiana, South Dakota, North Dakota and Kentucky. Prior to assuming his new position, he was superintendent of schools, Campbellsville, Ky.

FIELDER B. HARRIS, for sixteen years superintendent of schools, West Milton, Ohio, and for the last fourteen years superintendent of the Warren County, Ohio, schools, retired on August 31. He had spent fifty-six years in the service of the public schools, all but three of which were in Ohio.

HARVEY NEUMEISTER, superintendent of schools, Nebraska City, Neb., for the past several years, entered the law college at the University of Nebraska this fall.

DR. OSCAR HENRY COOPER died recently at the age of seventy-nine years. He was state superintendent of education in Texas for several years, and for six years he was superintendent of schools, Galveston, Tex. He was elected president of Baylor University, and later served as president of Simmons College, Abilene, Tex.

WILLIAM H. STEEGAR, superintendent of schools, Garfield, N. J., for the past twenty-nine years, has resigned, effective November 1.

JOHN H. STEINER, superintendent of schools, Quincy, Ill., died at his home in that city on August 30, after an illness of nearly a year. MR. STEINER,



A BUDDING HOSTESS

SHE *Notices* CHINA

... Likes Food Tastefully Served

THE finest food won't appeal to such a young lady if the china is common and clumsy—if it lacks the "home-like" touch. Boys, too, are susceptible to a "good-looking" meal. They eat more—are more careful in the way they handle china that doesn't look as if it were made to be abused. The help, too, is more careful.

From the standpoint of what's good business, there is every reason for your using a well-designed, gracefully shaped china. Even the most skeptical buyers of commercial china have had to bow to the carefully kept cost records of Syracuse China's performance. There are two major reasons why a seemingly delicate Syracuse China Old Ivory pattern can weather constant and sometimes brutal treatment. The body is thoroughly vitrified—non-porous. The pattern, instead of being on top of

the hard surface glaze where it can scratch, mar or fade, is "under-the-glaze"—permanently protected. The colors remain undimmed for the entire life of each piece.

Check the experience of present Syracuse China customers before you decide you cannot afford good-looking, well-shaped china. We'll send you some figures if you wish.

And see the many new patterns at your nearest dealer (name on request). If you do not find just the right pattern for your own needs, we have an art and design staff which will gladly submit some suggestions. For additional information address our Syracuse Office.

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A PRODUCT OF ONONDAGA POTTERIES

"Potters to the American People Since 1870"

In the Educational Field

who was in his fifty-ninth year, had been associated with the schools of Adams County, Illinois, nearly forty years. He served as county superintendent from 1910 to 1923, and during the ensuing nine years headed the Quincy school system.

CECIL C. RIDDLE, formerly superintendent of schools, Evanston, Wyoming, was recently elected a member of the faculty at Southeastern State Teachers College, Durant, Okla. He will serve as supervisor of the teachers training department.

S. W. PURSELL is the new superintendent of schools, Talmage, Neb. He has been principal of the schools at Danbury, Neb., and superintendent at Walton, Neb.

A. R. BOONE, superintendent of schools, Murphysboro, Ill., for the past fifteen years, has tendered his resignation, to become effective in July, 1933.

GRADY BOOKER is the new superintendent of schools, Wellington, Kan., succeeding A. M. McCULLOUGH.

DR. EDNA W. BAILEY, associate professor of education of the School of Education, University of California, has been elected vice president of the department of school health and physical education of the National Education Association.

THE REV. CARL J. RYAN has been appointed superintendent of Catholic elementary schools, Cincinnati.

C. B. OLDS, principal, Port Henry High School, New York City, has been chosen superintendent of schools, fourth supervisory district, St. Lawrence County, New York. He fills the vacancy caused by the death of JOHN W. SWEET.

DEAN JOHN STRAUB, veteran educator and dean emeritus, University of Oregon, died recently at his home in that city after an illness of a month. He was seventy-nine years old at the time of his death, and had been associated with the university for fifty-four years.

N. J. QUICKSTADT was recently appointed superintendent of schools, Royal Oak, Mich.

ARTHUR GOULD, assistant superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, has become deputy superintendent. WILLIAM L. RICHER, who has been in the Los Angeles school department since 1908, succeeds him as assistant superintendent.

V. E. HOISINGTON is the new superintendent of schools, Waterville, Kan., succeeding W. E. Turner, who has retired from the teaching profession to enter the commercial field.

H. A. WOOD, superintendent of schools, Munising, Mich., is the newly elected president of the Michigan Association of City School Superintendents.

DR. WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, U. S. Commissioner of Education, returned recently from Europe where he represented the United States at two international conferences on education. DOCTOR COOPER was in charge of a section at the sixth world conference of the New Education Fellowship at Nice, France. He also addressed the fourteenth International Congress of Secondary Education, held in London.

University of Florida Builds Model Demonstration School

The contract has been awarded for construction of the model demonstration school building of the college of education, adjoining the University of Florida campus.

The building will be three stories in height, of reenforced concrete, brick and stone. It is stated that the university's board of control is receiving \$150,000 from the General Education Board, a private foundation of New York City, to be used on the construction. The total cost of the building will be \$274,900. The new school will be built on an eleven-acre tract of land.

Over Billion Dollars Spent Yearly on City Schools

The sum of \$1,210,086,574 is required annually to maintain public city schools in areas with a population in excess of 2,500, L. B. Herlihy, assistant statistician, of the U. S. Office of Education, stated recently.

This amount is derived from taxable property whose true valuation is \$146,070,826,000, the average tax rate for school purposes being \$8.28 per \$1,000. The assessed valuation of the taxable city property amounts to \$103,478,472,000, or 70.8 per cent of the true valuation.

COOKING FUEL COSTS

CUT \$400⁰⁰

• A MONTH BY HOTEL SHERMAN, CHICAGO

A
"Facts and Figures"
story . . . for every
manager who wants
to cut cooking costs



EARLY in 1930 the Hotel Sherman Company, Chicago, decided to save money by replacing obsolete cooking equipment. New Vulcan, All-Hot-Top and Open Top Insulated, Heat Controlled Gas Ranges, Vulcan Deep Fat Fryers, Radiant and Salamander Broilers were installed.

Mr. Albert H. Byfield, Vice-President, wrote recently: "The last seven months of 1930 cost us \$7,003.00 in gas. The corresponding seven months of 1931, during which time we used the new ranges, showed a corresponding cost of only \$4,017.00. January, 1932, shows a saving of approximately \$400.00 as compared to the average of the preceding four years,

and February is nearly as good."

The new equipment paid for itself in eight months out of the \$400.00 a month savings in fuel . . . and now the \$400.00 monthly saving is clear gain.

Everyone may not be able to show as large a saving, because the operating cost is based on amount of equipment, cooking done, age of equipment and fuel. But, we do say that it will be to the advantage of managers of hotels, restaurants, clubs, hospitals and schools to look over their cooking equipment, figure the cost of operation and find out the Vulcan story.

5 WAYS THE NEW VULCAN GAS EQUIPMENT CUTS COOKING COSTS

1 Heat losses and gas consumption in oven cooking reduced by heavily insulated oven walls.

2 Over-heated ovens and resultant food shrinkage and waste of gas prevented by oven heat control.

3 Oven heat used more effectively in baking and roasting by improved flue system.

4 Top cooking made more efficient by All-Hot-Top. Heat of one burner spreads under entire top. All rings of burner quickly heat the top. Then one ring keeps it hot economically.

5 Labor costs reduced because range requires less watching due to automatic control . . . smooth front of range is kept clean with less work. More comfortable working conditions increase the efficiency of help.

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20 EAST 41st STREET, NEW YORK CITY
New York . Philadelphia . Baltimore . Chicago . Boston . Birmingham
Pacific Coast Distributor . . . Northwest Gas & Electric Equipment Co. . . . Portland, Oregon

VULCAN EQUIPMENT MAKES GAS THE MODERN EFFICIENCY FUEL . . . CLEAN, FAST AND ECONOMICAL

Your School— Its Construction and Equipment

A Department Conducted by CHESTER HART, B.Arch., Chicago

How Clothes Are Stored in Elementary Schools

Provision may be made for the care of pupils' clothes and books in elementary schools in one of three ways—with the cloakroom, the wardrobe or the locker. Points to be considered in selecting the type of clothes storage to be installed are the amount of space that is required and its effect on the cost of the building, and the ease of supervision of the pupils while they are getting their clothes.

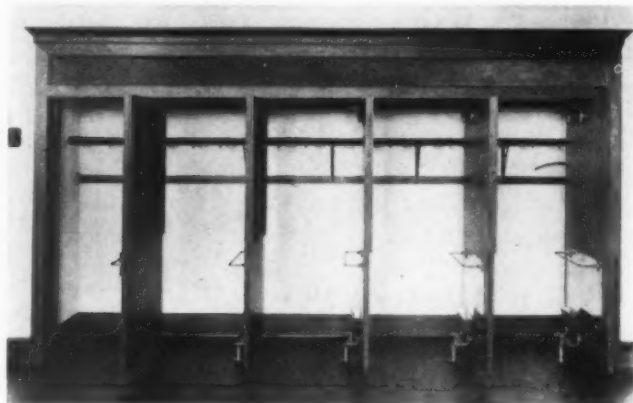
The cloakroom has been widely used until recently, but the five to six feet of width extending from corridor wall to exterior wall needed for this room adds appreciably to the building and maintenance cost. Also the separation of the cloakroom from the classroom except for the entrance doorways makes teacher supervision difficult. Doorways leading direct from the cloakroom to the corridor increase the difficulty of control. A more satisfactory arrangement is to have no exit into the corridor from the cloakroom, so that all the pupils after putting on their wraps have to pass through the classroom. An advantage of the cloakroom is that it provides ample space for removing wraps and rubbers and also allows sufficient room between the stored clothes for drying.

The wardrobe has been designed to reduce the space necessary for clothes storage and to facilitate teacher control. The wardrobe is usually only two feet in depth, which makes a saving of three to four feet in the length of each classroom unit. The cost of the wardrobe is completely offset by the reduced size of the building and the lowered fuel consumption. Wardrobes are usually placed in the back of the classroom and may be recessed so that the doors form part of the rear wall. As it is often unnecessary to use the entire wall space for the wardrobe the remaining space may be used to accommodate a cabinet for storage of supplies. Teacher supervision is extremely simple under the wardrobe plan, because the pupils remain in the classroom while getting their clothes.

Recent improvements in wardrobes and lockers make these two types of clothes storage facilities more desirable than the cloakroom.

The Richards-Wilcox Manufacturing Company, Aurora, Ill., has placed on the market a new multiple operating receding door wardrobe that is easy of access, either for the removal of clothing or for cleaning. The multiple operation is obtained through a master control door which, when unlatched and operated, opens and closes all doors simultaneously. When the master door is locked the entire wardrobe is locked.

The doors are 2 feet 6 inches wide and recede into the wardrobe to within one-half inch of the hat and coat racks. With a 2-foot depth of ward-

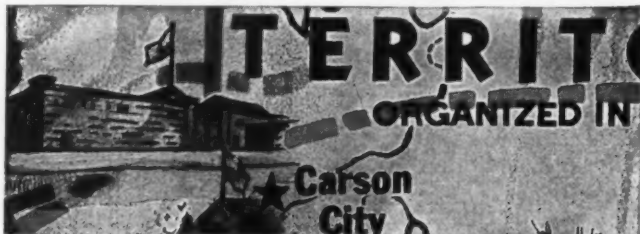


The multiple operating receding door wardrobe made by Richards-Wilcox Manufacturing Company.

robe and an 8½-inch hat rack more than one-half of the door is recessed when open. A deeper wardrobe will allow more of the door to be recessed and less space will be needed in the rear aisle. These doors are pivoted so that the opening into the wardrobe is approximately the full width of the door for all openings.

The operating mechanism consists of top and bottom pivot arms and an adjustable connecting rod for the top arm only. One bottom pivot is used for each door. The pivot base is 4 inches high and the point of attachment to the doors is 6 inches above the floor. This allows plenty of room for cleaning with a brush or a vacuum sweeper. The pivots project only 4½ inches from the face of the door, thereby minimizing the probability of children stumbling over them. The pivots are equipped with a double row of ball bearings to permit easy operation.

Pupils See America's Progress with the New TRYON ILLUSTRATED American History Maps



The small section of Map Number 6, illustrated above, shows the manner in which all of the maps are illustrated. Every picture is meaningful, and contributes toward a clearer understanding of the historical progress of America.

THIS new PICTORIAL Series of 9 American History Maps, tells a dramatic, fascinating story of the discovery, exploration, expansion and internal development of America. The illustrative features (269 authentic beautiful pictures) of these Maps appeal instantly to pupils . . . add interest and clarity to American History that induce progress without forced study effort. Let us send you the complete facts. You will see instantly how much help they can be in making History teaching easier, more effective. Address Dept. M1021.



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Makers of STERLING LIFELONG BLACKBOARD, OLD RELIABLE HYLOPLATE, VELVASTONE, GLOBES, MAPS, ERASERS, CRAYON

A Problem Solved by Experience

AMERICAN SCHOOLS

The problem of flooring for your schools may seem like a sticker, but it's really the easiest problem in the book. Follow the solution worked out by the Minneapolis School Board; select **ROBBINS Hard Maple** and pass the strictest examination with a perfect mark. That greatest teacher, Experience, has conclusively proved the answer time after time.

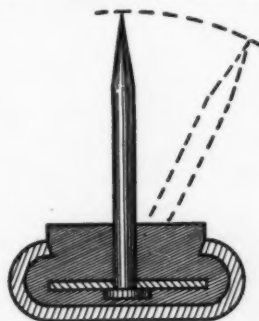
Write us today for complete information about **ROBBINS Hard Maple Flooring** for schools.

Robbins Flooring Co.
RHINELANDER, WISCONSIN

Folwell School
Minneapolis, Minn.

Architect, E. H. ENGER, School Board Architect.

Contractors, PIKE & COOK, Minneapolis.



Dotted lines indicate degree to which chair may be tilted while glide remains flat on the floor. The rubber cushion absorbs all noise, and washer prevents nail from pulling out.

Half of the responsibility for quietness in the schoolroom rests upon the teacher. The wise teacher, knowing the nuisance of noisy chairs and "incorrigible" furniture, will insist that all movable furniture in the schoolroom be equipped with

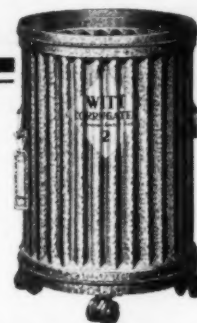
DARNELL Noiseless GLIDES

Darnell Noiseless Glides not only enable you to move chairs and light furniture smoothly and noiselessly, but give you maximum protection of floors as well.

Write for **FREE Sample Set**
DARNELL CORPORATION, LTD.

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WITT Cans are made in all styles and sizes for all purposes.



Cans by WITT

are the choice of many schools because they outlast 3 to 5 of the ordinary kind. This guaranteed longer life is due to WITT superior construction and strength . . . tests at the Pittsburgh Testing Laboratory conclusively proved WITT Cans to be from 50 to 400% stronger than other leading makes.

Whether intended for the sanitary disposal of garbage and waste, or for storing bulk supplies of food, the use of WITT Cans means Can economy. Ask your supply house—or write for complete information.

THE WITT CORNICE COMPANY
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WITT CANS

Hat and coat racks are continuous from one end of the wardrobe to the other. A rack extending the full length of a five-door wardrobe will accommodate approximately fifty pupils.

Cork boards or continuous blackboards with chalk rails may be applied to these doors. Umbrella racks and pans, with or without a sheet metal door protector, may be fastened to the inside of the doors. A teacher's wardrobe or book-



The two-compartment group controlled locker made by Lyon Metal Products, Inc.

cases in two or four-foot units, adjacent to the pupils' wardrobe, are also obtainable.

Health and sanitation require a current of air through the wardrobe in order to dry damp clothing and carry off disagreeable odors. Vent grilles above the wardrobe provide an outlet for the air, and the four-inch space below the door allows air currents to pass into the wardrobe.

An added convenience and time saving device has been applied to the wardrobes made by Prose-Maco, Inc., 1524 Holmes Street, Kansas City, Mo. The doors of these wardrobes may be electrically operated by a key control placed in the wall near the teacher's desk. By placing the key in the special socket an electric contact is made that starts the motor used for driving the operating mechanism. Opening or closing of the doors may be accomplished through this key control without the teacher's having to move from her desk. Consequently, the teacher can give undivided attention to the class work, even though some pupil may wish to use the wardrobe during the class session.

Should there be any obstruction to the free movement of the doors the electric motor stops

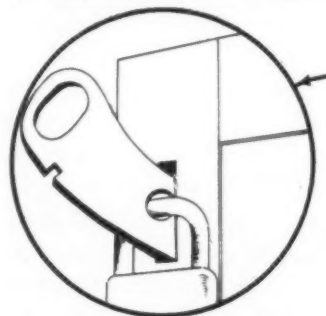
instantly and the movement of the doors is halted. This eliminates the possibility of pinched fingers or bruised arms or bodies. A twenty-five-pound obstruction will halt the opening of the doors and, consequently, children cannot be crushed between them.

The doors may be operated manually if desired. The electrically controlled wardrobe is always closed and locked when not in use.

Group controlled lockers are a recent development for the storage of clothes in elementary schools. Greater economy of space and lower building costs are made possible by the use of these lockers, since the required depth for installation varies from only twelve to sixteen inches. Each pupil has an individual compartment for his belongings and the teacher supervision is the same as in the wardrobe type of storage, because the lockers may be placed either in the inside wall or the rear wall of the classroom. In schools using the platoon system these lockers must be placed in the corridor, but group control may still be used.

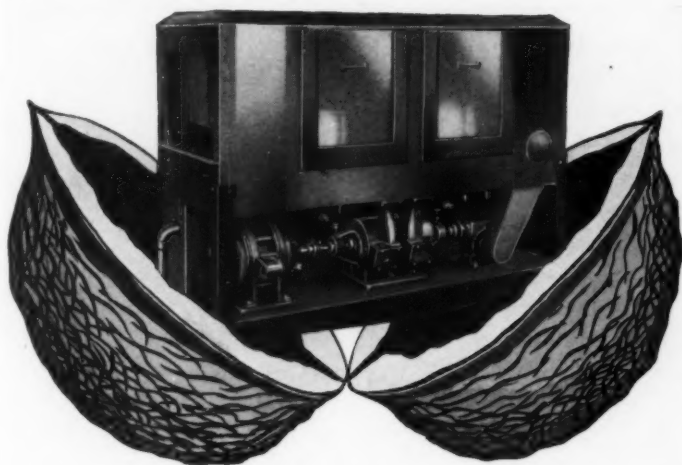
The group controlled lockers made by Lyon Metal Products, Inc., Aurora, Ill., have the same type of construction and workmanship that is found in this firm's regular line of school lockers. The locking trigger, on the upper left hand corner of the locker group, and the elimination of individual locks are the only changes in the operating mechanism. To unlock the locker group the padlock is removed from the locking device and the trigger is pushed to release all the doors. In order to lock the group, it is necessary to pull out the trigger and replace the padlock. The locking

The locking trigger on the Lyon firm's group controlled lockers. To unlock, the padlock is removed and the trigger is pushed in.



mechanism may be set in the locked position without closing all the doors, but as individual doors are closed they lock automatically. The doors are punched for individual locks and the locking system may be changed to individual control if desired.

These lockers are made in a variety of sizes and compartment divisions to accommodate both upper and lower grades. The two-compartment locker may be had in eight different sizes, and the three-compartment locker is available in four sizes.



ECONOMY in a nutshell

Real economy means more than a low price. It means getting your money's worth. When you buy a dishwashing machine, find out first of all what sort of work you can expect. If it's a

Colt Autosan Dishwashing Machine

you'll get **CLEAN DISHES**, every time—the powerful Colt direct sprays remove every particle of food, no matter how stubbornly it may be dried on. Ask any Colt Autosan owner.

Another thing—before you buy, find out how the machine is built. The rugged construction of every Colt Autosan model means years of **EXTRA WEAR**—and just so many dollars saved for you. And that rugged Colt Autosan construction ensures you against breakdowns—**CUTS DOWN UPKEEP COSTS**—and practically eliminates repair bills. A user reports a total repair cost of just \$1.75 in 6 years. That's what we call real economy!

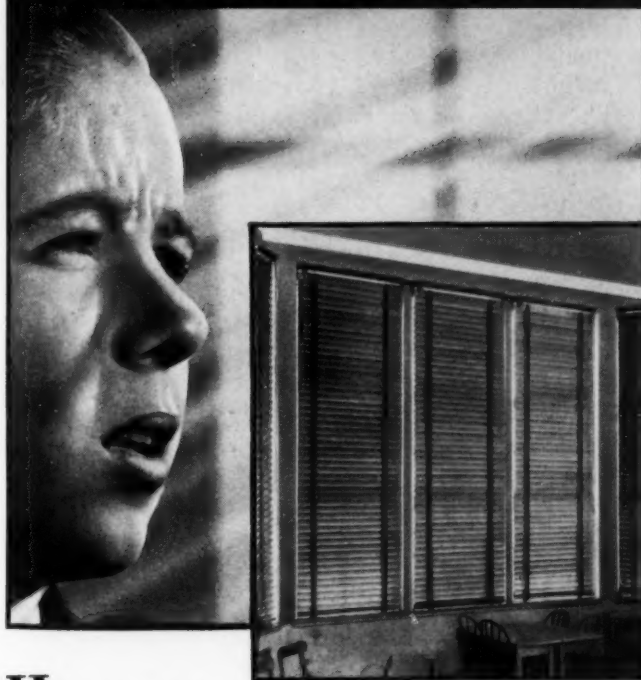
TWELVE WINNERS

There's a Colt Autosan model designed to take the measure of your dishwashing problem—and save you money doing it. Twelve models—one for every size and type of kitchen—including the four new rack conveyor models, "R-2", "R-4", "R-6" and "R-8." Send for the new complete Colt Autosan catalog.

Colt's Patent Fire Arms MFG CO.

Autosan Machine Division, Hartford, Conn., U. S. A.

Controlled DAYLIGHT PROTECTS THE EYES OF YOUTH!



He must
SEE in order to learn!

EYESIGHT is the most important physical asset of the great American student body. If the welfare and progress of your pupils is sincerely borne in mind you should provide them with the best possible natural illumination—the *Controlled* daylight of Western Venetian Blinds.

Western Venetian Blinds are essential to the visual sense—nerves—muscles and energy capacities because they give glareless light in proper intensities—diffused equally on every desk—in every corner—on all blackboards—of a classroom.

Send in the coupon—find out how Western Venetian Blinds can aid you in protecting the Eyes of Youth.

*Our free photometric test
is yours for the asking!*



Why not learn the scientific truth about illumination in your classroom? Our Photometric test is free for the asking. Sign the coupon and one of our Illumination Experts will be glad to make this test in your classrooms, free of charge, anywhere, any time.

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GENTLEMEN: We are interested in the Photometric Test. Also send one of your brochures, "Controlled Daylight Protects the Eyes of Youth," to—

SCHOOL.....
STREET.....
CITY..... STATE.....

The two-compartment locker is available in the following sizes:

Width	Depth	Height
12 inches	12 inches	54 inches and 60 inches
12 inches	15 inches	54 inches and 60 inches
15 inches	12 inches	54 inches and 60 inches
15 inches	15 inches	54 inches and 60 inches

The three-compartment locker is made in the following sizes:

Width	Depth	Height
15 inches	12 inches	60 inches
15 inches	15 inches	60 inches
18 inches	12 inches	60 inches
18 inches	15 inches	60 inches

Two shelves, six inches apart, are provided at the top of the two-compartment locker. Three shelves, six inches apart, are provided at the top of the three-compartment locker.

These group controlled lockers are installed in the same manner as the ordinary locker. They



The recessed ventilated locker made by Fred Medart Manufacturing Company. The auxiliary blackboard is shown raised above the open lockers.

may be recessed or left free standing. The free standing locker provides for installations in buildings already erected where the installation of recessed lockers would necessitate remodeling the building structure.

All doors are louvered at the top and the bottom so as to provide ventilation.

Another group controlled locker is made by the Fred Medart Manufacturing Company, Potomac and De Kalb Streets, St. Louis. The general construction and workmanship of the Lockerobe are the same as those found in the regular lockers made by this company.

The locker group is divided into units, each unit

accommodating four pupils. The number of units in a group ranges from one to five, which means that two groups of five units are necessary to accommodate the average class. Additional units in a third control group must be installed for larger classes. Each locker group is controlled by a single master keyed lock and door handle.

The inside dimensions of the unit are width, 22 inches, depth, 12½ inches and height, 54¾ inches. This space is divided into four coat compartments, with four hat compartments above. The hat shelves are spaced 6½ inches apart. Two doors are used for each unit. When opened the doors are back to back with the doors of the adjacent unit.

These lockers may be of the recessed or free standing types, but only the recessed type can be connected to the ventilating system. Locker groups that are not connected to a ventilating system have doors that are louvered at the top and the bottom, and the nonventilated recessed locker has a continuous base.

Also Suitable for High Schools

The recessed Lockerobe connected to a ventilating system has doors louvered at the bottom only, and each compartment is perforated at the back. The six-inch locker base also is perforated so as to keep a current of air passing below and up the back of the locker, thus maintaining air flow around and through the locker. The minimum depth of recess is sixteen inches which allows a two-inch space between the back of the locker and the wall.

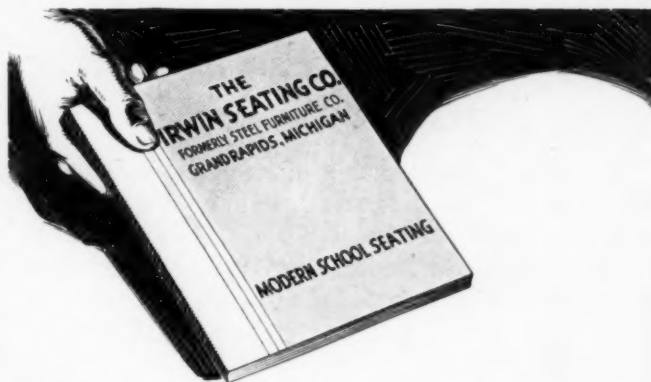
Bookcases and teachers' wardrobes that are designed to harmonize with the Lockerobe may be obtained with various compartment arrangements.

If the wall space occupied by the Lockerobe is needed for blackboards, a counterbalanced auxiliary blackboard that can be raised or lowered in front of the lockers may be installed. This blackboard supplied with the lockers is manufactured in standard heights and the lengths are made to fit any length of locker group. The height of the chalk rail above the floor may be regulated to suit the needs of each grade.

The chalk rails are equipped with removable metal trays and the blackboard is Metalboard made by the American Seating Company. Metalboard is a heavy gauge sheet steel with vitreous porcelain enamel fused on both sides.

Although group lockers have been considered here as applied to elementary school use only, they also are applicable to the storage needs of junior and senior high schools. With special shelf and partition arrangements they may be used for the storage of materials that have daily class use.

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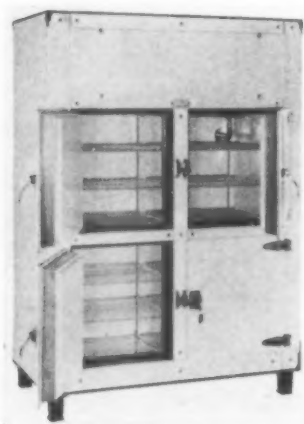
THE Service Department of **THE NATION'S SCHOOLS** is at all times in a position to advise on purchasing sources for all types of school building materials and equipment and to see that the school executive is put in touch with a reliable manufacturer for any of his needs. A letter or postcard will bring prompt response and aid.

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New Models of Porcelain Refrigerator Boxes Are Developed

A number of new models of porcelain refrigerator boxes for both ice and machine refrigeration have been developed by the McCray Refrigerator Sales Corporation, Kendallville, Ind. The exterior and interior of both types of refrigerator boxes are white porcelain and the exterior of each type is trimmed in black.

The walls of the mechanical refrigerator box are four inches thick, with three inches of rock cork sealed with hydrolene. The refrigerator for icing is similar in thickness, but is insulated with three inches of pure corkboard sealed in hydrolene. The back and top of the box are covered with a heavy, rust resisting galvanized iron. All hardware is nickel plated bronze and the door fasteners are of



This refrigerator is designed for machine refrigeration only and has a capacity of 40.9 cubic feet.

the self-closing type. The doors are fitted with double gaskets and have wood edges to fit into a wood jamb.

A variety of compartment arrangements are obtainable, and all compartments are equipped with electrically welded metal bar shelves. The square feet of shelf space varies from 27.39 to 60.5 square feet, and the cubic capacities range from 32.6 to 61.32 cubic feet.

With these refrigerator boxes it is possible to install any type of mechanical refrigeration desired.

Automatic Locks That Increase Locker Efficiency

Recent developments in padlocks and built-in locks for school lockers have been made to protect the pupil against his own carelessness, and to facilitate the rapid inspection of all locks by school authorities, features that have many advantages for those in charge of the locker equipment.

The new combination locks not only lock automatically when the shackle is pressed to the closed position, but the combination is also automatically upset, thus disarranging all three tumblers and disguising the last digit of the combination. A closed padlock or locker door, if the built-in lock is

One of the new types of padlocks with the automatic locking mechanism.



installed, means a securely locked locker, and a glance along the bank of lockers is all that is necessary to assure the supervisor that the pupil's property is properly protected. A master control chart is used as a record for all locker combinations. These new features in padlocks have been incorporated into the locks made by the Dudley Lock Corporation, 26 North Franklin Street, Chi-

A combination automatic built-in lock for locker installations.



cago, and the Yale & Towne Mfg. Company, Stamford, Conn.

Another Yale padlock that has the automatic locking mechanism also has an added key control feature.

These locks are for controlled groups of lockers where one emergency master key is desired to open all locks. The combination of the new locks cannot be detected by sight or sound.